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Division of Communication

**The Effect of TV Commercials on Consumption
Behaviors of Children in Hong Kong**

by

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fulfillment for the degree of Master of Philosophy

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Contents

	Page
Acknowledgments	i
Abstract	ii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review	5
A. Regulation of TV Commercials	5
B. Areas of Concern	7
C. Understanding the Selling Intent of TV Ads	9
D. Effects of TV ads on Children's Cognitions, Attitudes, and Behaviors	10
E. Effects of TV Ads on Consumption Behaviors	12
F. Effects of TV Ads and the Parental Influence on Children's Consumption Behaviors	17
G. Findings from Local Researches	18
Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework	22
A. Overview	22
B. Theory of Consumer Socialization	23
C. A Conceptual Framework for Consumer Socialization	27
Chapter 4: Research Design	32
A. Research Objectives	32
B. Variables and Operational Definition	33
C. Hypotheses	40
D. Sampling	45
E. Data Collection	45
F. Coding Procedure	46
G. Statistical Analysis	47

Chapter 5: Data Analysis	49
A. Respondents' Profile	49
B. Scales Reliability	61
C. Hypotheses Testing	68
Chapter 6: Discussion of Research Findings and Implications	96
A. Overview	96
B. Effects of Social Structural Variable	96
C. Effects of Age	101
D. Effects of Socialization Agents	102
E. Implications	108
Appendix	
I. Television Code of Practice on Advertising Standards	115
II. Enrollment Statistics, Hong Kong Education Department, 1995-96	118
III. List of Sampling Units	119
IV. Sample Letter of Request	120
V. Sample Questionnaire (English Version)	121
VI. Sample Questionnaire (Chinese Version)	128
References	134

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Abstract

A conceptual framework of consumer socialization is adopted in this study to investigate how sex, age, and socialization agents affect the consumer behaviors of children in Hong Kong. A sample of 581 pupils aged from 8 to 13 were drawn randomly from six primary schools. The findings show that on average, respondents spent 4.1 hours to watch TV every day. In general, children are most likely to seek product information from parents and use price as the important attribute for product evaluation. Also, they are more likely to buy products with their parents.

Sex has predispositional effect on children's consumer behaviors. Females hold more positive attitudes towards TV ads and would be more frequently (i) to seek product information from parents, (ii) to use parents' preference for product evaluation, and (iii) to purchase products with parents. Males are likely to use price and brand attributes for product evaluation.

Age is a good predictor of children's consumer behaviors. It is related to a number of dependent measures. Older children are more likely to (i) rely on peers for information and advice in buying, (ii) rely less on parents for information and advice in buying, (iii) save more money and prefer to purchase goods independently.

The three socialization agents: family, peers, and television have mediating effect with sex and age on children's consumer behaviors. Peer communication about consumption appears to have the strongest influence. It is related to all variables except price evaluation. Nevertheless, the three socialization agents would interact with each other, moderating the effects of each socialization agent on children's consumer behaviors.

Finally, the findings of this study can deepen our insight in four areas. Marketing staff can borrow the results of this study to develop better promotion strategy on children's product. Consumer education is necessary for parents and their children to understand more the nature and functions of TV ads. In public policy, the issue on regulation of TV ads has been raised. Finally, the discussion for improving the study of consumer socialization has been made.

Chapter 1 : INTRODUCTION

Though television was first introduced half century ago, it has become increasingly indispensable to most modern families. TV stations provide round-the-clock programs which attract hundreds of millions of viewers worldwide. In 1948, the number of TV sets in United States did not exceed 100,000. However, in 1959, the number shot up to 50 million, and the penetration rate reached 88% (Schramm et al., 1961). By the end of the 1980s, television sets were in more than 98% of all households, for a total of more than 90 million households (Comstock, 1991).

In the United States, the amount of time the whole population spent with television has increased steadily since its introduction (Comstock, 1991). For those children aged between six and eleven, they watched television an average of three and a third hours each day (Nielsen, 1990). Based on this figure, children in North America are estimated to watch about 1500-1800 hours of commercial television annually (Cheney, 1983).

In Hong Kong, a non-government organization, Boys' and Girls' Clubs Association, conducted a survey in 1977, discovering that school children watched TV 1.6 hours a day on average, far less than their counterparts in the United States. In 1989, the same agency released the report of a survey studying the leisure activities of school children. The total number of respondents was 2,678 who aged from eight to fifteen. The findings showed that the major leisure activity of school children was TV viewing. The time on watching television increased to 2.2 hours a day on average. About fifty-seven percent of the respondents said that they usually watched television between 6 p.m. and 10 p.m.. When asked why they watched TV, 83.4% indicated that they would get the latest product information (The Boys' and

Girls' Clubs Association of Hong Kong et.al., 1989).

In another study conducted by Ho (1977), the picture was a little different. Ho discovered that primary five pupils, on average, watched TV for four hours a day. The total viewing time in a week for primary five children amounted to 29.01 hours, as much time as they spent on schooling every week. In 1983, the Sociology Society of Chinese University of Hong Kong et al. commissioned a study on the primary pupils concerning their TV viewing habits. Seven hundred and ninety-five primary school children were interviewed. It was found that their average viewing time during weekdays was three to four hours, but 21.3 % watched TV up to six hours a day (Sociology Society of Chinese University of Hong Kong et al., 1983).

The study findings in Hong Kong indicate that watching television is a major program of children's leisure activities. We all know that the society was simple in the past. Not so much entertainment was available to the children. Therefore, watching TV became the most popular activity. However, we can see that the viewing time among children does not show any sign of falling across the decades. Why do children watch TV? Schramm (1961) pointed out that there are three basic functions for TV viewing. First, TV offers entertainment to children. This proposition was echoed by Ho' s finding. In her study, when the children were asked why they watched TV, three-fourths of them said they watched TV simply because it was interesting. Second, the children could be benefited from TV viewing by obtaining the latest information. Third, TV could have a social function. Children could share their opinions and viewpoints on TV programs. In fact, in the study made by the Boys' and Girls' Clubs Association of Hong Kong, 71.1% of the school children interviewed expressed that TV could provide topics of conversations among their peers.

Because children do watch a lot of television and enjoy what they see, TV becomes a very attractive medium for the advertisement business. In fact, it is very profitable for business to advertise to children. For example, Mattel was one of the first toy companies to advertise on television. Its investment almost paid off immediately in increased sales. Its success was reflected by the enormous increase of advertising budget from \$150,000 in 1955 to \$15 million in 1970 (Jennings, 1970; Schneider, 1989). We cannot obtain comparable information of Hong Kong. Nevertheless, from the annual report of the Television Broadcasting Company Limited, one of the major TV stations in Hong Kong and whose income is mainly from the advertisement, we can see that the net profit has had an incredible increase from 33 millions in 1979 to 425 millions in 1988 (Television Broadcasts Limited, 1979-1988). It illustrates how business has increasingly made use of the television medium to advertise their products.

As children watch TV for a considerable amount of time, they also view a great number of TV commercials every day. In general, the TV commercials are fifteen to thirty seconds long. For the children in the United States, they were subjected to an estimated 20,000 (Adler et al., 1977; Peterson et al., 1984) to 40,000 potential exposures per year (Condry et al., 1988). Since children have been exposed to such enormous number of TV commercials over a long time, many scholars are interested to know whether the TV ads have effect on children. Would children have strong desire to purchase a particular product which appears in the TV commercial? Could children distinguish the TV commercials from the programs? Could they understand the selling intent of the TV commercials? Could they develop positive consumer habits after viewing a lot of TV commercials? What roles do the parents play in helping children understand more about TV commercials?

For the above questions, many researchers had devoted their efforts to finding out the relations between TV ads and children's purchase behaviors. For example, Ward et al. (1977) asked children if they would like to have the products in TV commercials they had just been exposed to. Two-third of the respondents in the kindergarten and half of the grade 3 and grade 6 children answered yes. Atkin (1975) commissioned a study with the grade 4 and grade 5 children as samples. He discovered that the more frequently the children watched TV commercials, the more likely the children were to eat the advertised food. Other studies also confirmed that there is a positive correlation between commercial viewing and the consumption of that advertised products. Before we reach any conclusion about the effect of TV ads on children, we had better take a review on what has been done in the past.

Chapter 2 : LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Regulation of TV Commercials

Television advertising and its effects on young viewers became a controversial issue in the public agenda in the late 1960s and early 1970s in the United States (Comstock and Paik, 1987). One of the topics relevant to television and children has been whether or not the number or nature of television commercials directed specifically at children should be regulated. A prominent public interest group, Action for Children's Television (ACT), emphasized that some of the audiences were not old enough to interpret the nature and purpose of television advertising. With persistent effort, ACT successfully urged the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to launch a number of measures, including

- (1) reducing advertising per hour that put children's programming on a par with primetime programming;
- (2) ending advertising of drugs such as vitamins during children's programming ;
- (3) putting restraints on the use of television personalities and characters as advertising spokespeople, and ;
- (4) leading to tougher codes for children's advertising.

Many of the academic studies assumed that TV ads had a bad effect on children. For example, Alder et al. (1980) claimed that there were four basic concerns:

- (1) Children are exposed to advertising for products or categories of products that may be hazardous if misused.
- (2) Any advertising directed at children is in fact "bad" because it exploits their vulnerability.
- (3) Specific techniques used in television advertising may be deceptive or misleading to children, who lack the skills to evaluate them properly.

- (4) Long-term cumulative exposure to television advertising may have adverse consequences on the development of children's values, attitudes, and behaviors.

Roberts (1983), in his article, listed the arguments for and against the regulation of TV commercials. The reasons for the regulation are that firstly children are viewed as a special audience, one that is particularly vulnerable to television messages. Secondly, the majority of children's advertising deals with unnutritional food products such as cereals, candies, and fast-foods (Barcus, 1980). Atkin and Heald (1977) reported that Barcus monitored TV advertising during four Saturday mornings, analyzing 311 commercials from three networks and one independent station in 1971. He found that the most frequently presented product categories were cereals (23 percent), toys (23 percent), other foods and snacks (23 percent), and candies and sweets (21 percent). A similar study was made in 1980. It was also discovered that over eighty percent of children's advertising dealt with four categories: toys; cereals; candies and fast-food restaurant (Barcus, 1980). Those ads for sugared products represent a risk to children's physical health because they promote high sugar consumption, and that they should be banned in programming aimed at younger children.

The people against the regulation of child-oriented TV commercials have also their strong reasons. Firstly, the abolition of advertising directed at children would lead to the demise of much television programming produced for children. Secondly, children are more capable of understanding and critically analyzing commercials than they are often given credit for (Esserman, 1981). Thirdly, children cannot learn to become intelligent adult consumers unless they are exposed to television ads and learn to deal with these commercial messages. Finally, products advertised to children have been deemed legal to manufacture and distribute, thus should be free from advertising restraints, and in addition, the advertising industry

enforces its own code which adequately regulates deceptive advertising practices and the amount of advertising directed at children (Murray, 1980).

In Hong Kong, there are some feminist groups which concern whether TV ads carry messages of sex discrimination, but little effort is made to monitor on the advertisements for children. Such monitoring role is solely provided by the Hong Kong Broadcasting Authority. It has laid down a set of television codes of practice on advertising standards (Hong Kong Broadcasting Authority, 1993). With regard to advertising aimed at children, HKBA has provided a detail guidelines for the TV station and advertising agencies to follow. The codes of practice can be divided into two parts. The first part is about the viewing child. The guidelines in this part are intended to protect the children audience by restricting the contents of the TV ads. For example, the advertisements should not let children believe that they would be inferior if they could not own the products. The second part is for the child in the advertisements. In the commercial scenes, the children should observe safety and behave in good manners (see Appendix 1).

B. Areas of Concern

Resulting from the above debate, a large number research studies were done to investigate the different issues. One of the first reviews of research was published in 1974 (Sheikh et al.). Five areas of activity concerning the television advertising were identified:

- (1) The content of children's commercials;
- (2) Children's attention to commercials;
- (3) Their information processing of the commercial message;
- (4) Their attitudes towards TV advertising;
- (5) Their attempts to influence their parents to purchase the advertised products.

A classification based on an assumption that the advertising message is processed in sequence, from watching to buying, is the most popular.

Based on the above identification, Young (1990) categorizes the research into two main divisions. One is concerned with "what's on" and various ways of analyzing the content of advertising directed at children. This part can be divided into several subfields:

- (1) Attention to commercials;
- (2) Ability to distinguish between commercials and programs;
- (3) The child's understanding of the intent of the commercial;
- (4) The child's interpretation of the content of the commercial (including consumption symbolism, gender stereotypes);
- (5) The child's memory for the commercial;
- (6) Other process invoked (for example, cognitive defenses) by viewing.

The second division concerns how children process the information in advertising, what they do with it, and how their behavior is influenced by what they see and hear. This part can be subdivided into three subfields:

- (7) The effect on knowledge, attitudes and values (for example, whether exposure to information in ads for junk food lowers nutritional awareness; what children feel about advertising);
- (8) The effect on other people, in particular parents (for example, does the child pester Mum for more?);
- (9) The effect on choice or consumption behavior (for example, whether the children eat more sweets after watching commercials for that class of product, or whether they consume more of a particular brand by watching a commercial for that brand?).

The division made by Young covered a wide range of topics for study. In this paper, we would focus our attention on the second division, especially the effect of TV ads on children's consumption behaviors.

C. Understanding the Selling Intent of TV Ads

Concerning the selling intent of TV ads, early researches suggested that young children failed to understand the selling purpose of TV ads (Rossiter and Robertson, 1974; Rubin, 1974). Donohue et al. (1980) adopted a non-verbal measure which offered children from the ages of two to six a choice of pointing to one of two pictures in response to the question of what the character in a commercial "wanted them to do". The results show that children understand the intent of television commercials at a younger age than has been reported in the literature. Children between ages of three and six can watch a subtle, animated cartoon in which there is no mention of product purchase or the like, and they can indicate that the character in the cartoon wants them to acquire the product. This study indicates that the general level of understanding of commercials' intent by children is more developed than previous research methods led us to believe. Also, children had no trouble determining who in their family would or would not like to watch specific segments. Moreover, not only could young children intuit what other family members would and would not like in television programming, but they could also intuit that a stranger wanted them to behave in a specific way.

In a replication study by Macklin (1985) using the approach of Donohue et al., the result was somewhat different. Thirty young children watched two commercials. One was featured animated characters as the product endorsers, but the other one was a realistic portrayal by a product spokesman. A set of photographs was constructed to resemble the measures used by Donohue et. al. After viewing the

commercials, the young children were successful in selecting a shopping scene over a TV viewing one as an indication of selling intent. However, when the test was made more difficult by the inclusion of two more pictorial alternatives, the preschoolers failed to select the correct photograph. This failure casts doubt on the conclusion that young children understand the selling intent of ads.

D. Effects of TV Ads on Children's Cognitions, Attitudes, and Behaviors

With reference to the effect of TV ads on the cognitive development of the children, Ward (1972) interviewed children between the ages of five and twelve at home for a period of one hour. His results can be summarized as follows:

- (1) As a child becomes older, his understanding of what constitutes a commercial becomes greater.
- (2) As a child becomes older, his understanding of the purpose of a commercial increases.
- (3) Younger children are generally not able to discriminate between a program and a commercial whereas the older children (9-12) are generally able to make this distinction.
- (4) Younger children tended to like a commercial because they like or possess the advertised product.
- (5) The complexity of the images that a child recalls from a television commercial increases with age. The complexity of recall does not significantly differ for liked or disliked commercials.
- (6) With the exception of the youngest group, the majority of children believed that commercials do not always tell the truth.

Considering the effect of TV ads on children, Rossiter (1979) had a different perspective. He distinguished two types of effects. Cumulative-exposure

effects refer to the impact of TV advertising on children as they grow older and thus see more commercials. Heavy-viewing effects refer to the impact of TV advertising on children who, within age groups, are more heavily exposed to commercials than their peers. For each type of effect, it can be discussed in three categories:

- (1) cognitive effects focus on children's ability to understand the nature and purpose of TV advertising;
- (2) attitudinal effects focus on children's feeling toward TV commercials and their reaction to TV advertising as a social institution; and
- (3) behavioral effects emphasize the extent to which children are persuaded to ask for advertised products.

For the cumulative-exposure effects, Rossiter and Robertson (1976) examined children's understanding of the conceptual basis of television commercials in terms of six variables that measured children's ability to

- (1) define the differences between TV commercials and TV programs;
- (2) comprehend the existence of an external message source or sponsor;
- (3) perceive the existence of intended target audiences of commercial messages;
- (4) identify informative intent in commercials;
- (5) identify persuasive intent in commercials;
- (6) understand their symbolic representational characteristics.

Total cognitive understanding of commercials was highly correlated with a child's age ($r=.63$, $p<.001$).

Concerning the attitudinal effect, an impressive body of studies has documented that children's positive attitudes toward commercials decline significantly with age (Blatt, Spencer, and Ward, 1972; Robertson and Rossiter, 1974; Bever et al. 1975). In talking about the behavioral effect, the safest conclusions from the available evidence are that the cumulative-exposure effect of commercials is to reduce

children's intentions or desire for advertised products only slightly and to produce a similarly slight reduction in the frequency of advertising-induced requests to parents.

In discussing heavy-viewing effects, there is a question whether the heavy viewers, within age groups, differ from light viewers in terms of the impact of TV advertising. Concerning the cognitive effects, the amount of television viewing at a given age level has no effect on children's ability to understand the nature and purpose of TV commercials. Heavy viewers are no more and no less sophisticated regarding TV advertising than their light-viewing peers. For the attitudinal effects, heavy viewers tend to have more favorable attitudes toward television commercials. Children's attitudes toward commercials become more negative as they grow older, but heavy viewers within age groups hold more positive attitudes than their peers. Finally, with respect to the behavioral effect, positive relationships between heavy TV viewing and children's requests for advertised products have also been reported by researchers (Atkin, 1975). In summary, heavy exposure had an effect regardless of the child's age and level of sophistication.

E. Effects of TV Ads on Consumption Behaviors

In regard to the effect of TV ads on the consumption behaviors of children, a large number of research studies have been done. Galst and White (1976) conducted an experiment with 41 children who viewed videotaped television commercials individually on a monitor located in an empty room within their school. The children could keep the commercial presentation on the monitor by pressing a button mounted in a metal box. The researchers could record how frequently a child pressed the button. It was found that the harder children worked to maintain TV commercials on a monitor, the more commercial television they were exposed to at home, and the greater the number of purchase requests they directed to their mothers

in the supermarkets.

Scammon and Christopher (1981) found that exposure to commercials for sugared products led to greater consumption of sugared products, greater preference for sugared foods, including those foods that were not advertised, and lower nutritional knowledge. Moreover, exposure to commercials for healthy foods or non-sugared foods influenced consumption by dampening any increased consumption of sugared foods.

Goldberg and Gorn have done many important research studies that examined the direct behavioral effect of watching television advertising. Goldberg, Gorn and Gibson (1978) conducted an experiment with 80 children aged five to six years. The subjects were asked to choose from a mixed set of alternative brands and products after viewing commercials for highly sugared foods. The findings showed that short-term snack and breakfast food preferences tended to reflect their exposure experience, and children were more likely to select highly sugared foods if they had previously viewed television commercials for them.

In another study, Gorn and Goldberg (1980) exposed forty eight- to ten-year-old scouts to varying numbers of ice-cream commercials. Exposure to a television commercial for a brand influenced choice of that brand in the expected direction, and there was also evidence that exposure to more than one commercial for that brand increased the probability that the brand would be chosen. Recall of specifics, such as brand name, may be achieved with a minimal number of exposures. Altering preferences and behavior may require additional exposures, as well as a varied set of commercials. While three exposures, either repetitive or varied, improved recognition slightly; further exposure had little positive impact. By contrast, increasing exposure had a positive effect on children's preference and behavior,

provided the exposure was not repetitive.

Gorn and Goldberg (1982) commissioned another study at a summer camp with 72 children aged five to eight years. The children were randomly assigned to a group which would view a half-hour cartoon program but with different types of commercials inserted between. Children who were exposed to candy/orange juice commercials chose the most candy/orange juice. One condition that did not affect consumption behavior was whether the half-hour video contained health messages.

In a study by Goldberg and Gorn (1978), four to five year old preschoolers were exposed to three different levels of commercials for a toy in the context of a ten-minute neutral program. The first level was the control group which saw the program without commercials. The second level was the experimental group which saw the program with the commercials inserted once towards the beginning of the program and once towards the end. The administration of the experiment on these two levels took place within a day. The third level was another experimental group which saw the program with commercials on two consecutive days. It was found that exposure to a toy commercial increased the likelihood that children would prefer to play with the toy rather than with their friends. It also increased their preference for playing with a peer described as "not-so-nice" rather than a "nice" peer presumably in order to play with the former child's toy. The children experienced greater personal unhappiness when they had seen a TV ad for the product in question and were denied it.

Besides Goldberg and Gorn, another researcher has conducted similar studies. Galst (1980) divided 65 children between three and a half and seven years of age into five groups. All groups were shown two different short cartoons each day for four weeks, but other conditions were different. One group would see

commercials for food products with added sugar content. The viewing would be followed by an immediate evaluative comments from an adult. The second group saw the same commercials but without any evaluative comments. The third group would see commercials for food products with no added sugar content and pro-nutritional public service announcements. The viewing would be completed by an adult's comment. The fourth group saw the same commercials as the third group did but no adult comments at the end. The last group was the control group, and the children only watched the cartoon programs. The experiment showed that the most effective combination for reducing the children's selection of snacks with added sugar was the presentation of commercials for food products without added sugar together with pro-nutritional public service announcements followed by accompanying positive evaluative comments by an adult co-observer. Mere exposure to any television presentation, however, did not influence the children to select non-sugared snacks with greater frequency.

Robertson and Rossiter (1976) used a total of 289 children in their study. The children were asked to nominate their five most strongly preferred Christmas present choices at two time periods: five weeks before Christmas and just one week before Christmas. In addition, the children were asked how often they had actually requested each item from their parents, and where they obtained the information about their desired Christmas presents. The findings suggested that the short-term impact of television commercials on children's behavioral choices was similar at all age levels -- causing an increase of about five percent in toy and game choices. Requests to parents for toys and games, as a final behavioral outcome, showed the same pattern: an overall decline with age, but moderate short-term increases over the advertising campaign period regardless of the age of the children.

One null result should be reported. Heslop and Ryans (1980) sampled 280 children in two groups: four- to six-year-olds, and seven- to eight-year-olds. The children watched a cartoon program with commercials inserted. Later, the children were asked to choose a product as payment for participation in the study. The result revealed that the effect of the advertising on behavior was minimal. There was little relationship between the brand advertised and the brand selected and taken home.

Besides the effect of TV ads per se on children, other factors also have an influence on children's consumption behavior. Stoneman and Brody (1981) discovered that the effect of peer group influence and TV commercial influence was additive, that one reinforced the other if the influence was in the same direction. The strongest social influence resulted when the ad extolled the virtues of brand X and the peer also stated a preference for brand X.

Bolton (1983) identified that the extent to which a child has been exposed to food commercials, the kind of supervision and behavior of the parents, the prevailing patterns of diet, and other child-based factors all have a role to play in influencing what a child will eat and the nutritional status of that diet. A sample of 262 children aged from two to eleven years old was made up. Using multivariate statistical analysis, it was found that children's exposure to television food advertising has brought three significant effects. First, it will increase the number of their snacks. Second, the additional snack that the child consumes will increase their caloric intake. Third, children's exposure to television food advertising significantly decreases their nutrient efficiency.

F. Effects of TV Ads and the Parental Influence on Children's Consumption Behaviors

As mentioned previously, some studies have shown that the behaviors of parents have an influence on children's consumption behaviors. Other research has documented that many children regard their parents' refusals to purchase as unreasonable (Rossiter and Robertson, 1974). Sheikh and Moleski (1977) raised several questions in this area that deserved attention:

- (1) What percentage of children are influenced by commercials to the extent of asking their parents to buy certain products?
- (2) Do they tend to lodge their requests more frequently with their mothers or their fathers?
- (3) When children do request that their parents buy certain products, what percentage of parents grant the demands? Do mothers or fathers tend to be more compliant?
- (4) What are the consequences of parents' refusal of a request? Do children easily accept the parents' decision or not?
- (5) Do the responses vary according to the age of the children?
- (6) Do the responses vary according to the sex of the children?
- (7) Do the responses vary according to the nature of the object being advertised (food product, toy, or clothing item)?

Sheikh and Moleski (1977) used a projective test for 144 children. The results disclosed that when children grow older and have viewed a greater number of commercials, they lodged more purchase requests. However, with further increase in age, perhaps the children learn that it is better to request only those products that they have a good chance of obtaining. When being asked what happened when parents refused to buy the advertised products, following feelings were coded:

unpleasant affect (33.33 percent), acceptance (23.19 percent), aggression (22.71 percent), persistence (15.97 percent), and irrelevant response (4.8 percent). Further examination of the data indicated that the girls exhibited significantly more unpleasant affect than the boys. There was a significant decrease in unpleasant affect for both boys and girls from the third to the fifth grade.

G. Findings from Local Researches

In Western countries, a large volume of research studies were devoted to examining the effect of TV ads on children. In Hong Kong, however, research studying the relationship between television and children has been minimal. As mentioned in chapter one, The Boys' and Girls' Clubs Association of Hong Kong had conducted two surveys aiming at understanding how the school children spent their leisure time in 1979 and 1989 respectively. For the survey in 1989, it used stratified proportional cluster sampling method. A total number of 2678 school children aged from eight to fifteen were interviewed. It was found that on average, the respondents watched television for 2.2 hours every day. They usually watched television between 6 p.m. and 10 p.m..

In another survey conducted by the Sociology Society of Chinese University of Hong Kong (1983), 795 school children aged from nine to sixteen were interviewed. The survey aimed at understanding the TV viewing habits of Hong Kong children. The results revealed that children watched television for three to four hours a day on average. For 57.9% of the respondents, their parents did not have any restrictions on their choice of TV programs. Most of the children preferred watching children programs (45.65%), and sitcoms were a second favorite (14.8%).

In 1977, Ho Kam-ngor completed a study titled "Television in the Lives of Hong Kong Children" for her master thesis. This study mainly focused on the relationship between the negative consequences induced by TV viewing and the children's TV viewing habits. Altogether 159 primary two pupils and 165 primary five pupils were randomly selected. The research findings clearly indicated that there was a positive relationship between children's time spent watching TV and family conflicts. The amount of time that children spent on TV was positively correlated with their parents' viewing habits. However, there was no indication that the school academic performance was correlated with the TV watching.

The first research which focused on the impact of television advertising on children in Hong Kong was conducted by Lee and Leung (1979). Three hundred pupils from five primary schools whose ages were from eight to 12 years old and 273 of their parents were interviewed. His study obtained the following findings:

- (1) The results indicated that age is significantly related to children's ability to perceive the purpose of commercials.
- (2) In the perception of persuasive purpose, three prior cognitive distinctions by the children are shown to be significant: discrimination between programs and commercials, recognition of sponsors of commercials, and experience of discrepancies between product and message.
- (3) No significant relationship was found between the recognition of the purpose of commercials and their reactions to commercials. In other words, it is not evident that if a child recognizes the persuasive purpose of commercials, the child is less likely to trust or like the commercials, or less likely to desire the advertised product.
- (4) No significant relationship is found between children's ages and the frequency of requests and parents' yielding.

- (5) There is a significant positive correlation between parents' yielding to purchase requests and income level, education level, and parents' positive attitude towards commercials.

In 1988, Lau used convenience sampling to draw a group of 517 Form One students and their parents in seven subsidized secondary schools in Hong Kong. Her research focused on two questions. First, do heavy viewers differ from light viewers in terms of attitude, cognition, and behavior regarding TV commercials? Second, in case such differences appear, would they hold true if one controls for the parental influence?

The results found that there was no significant relationship between exposure and cognition. It can be explained that exposure to TV advertising has no direct effects in changing children's cognitions, attitudes, and behaviors. Therefore, the results indicated that the exposure effects on cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral changes of the Form One students is not as strong as the parental influence.

The parent-child communication had a significantly high correlation on cognition, attitude, and behavior. Especially the attitudes of the students were very much affected by this variable. Also, the findings indicated that product purchase requests (buying behavior) were not significantly correlated with parental control (Lau, 1988).

Recently, Kenny and Yung (1997) adopted a cultivation analysis approach to study the content of television dramas and sitcoms in prime time. They find that the nutritional messages are generally unhealthy in the Hong Kong television dramas, especially with respect to the portrayal of the eating habits of the young. Moreover, the study discovers that there are positive significant relationships between television

viewing and poor eating habits, and between television viewing and perceptions and intentions regarding alcohol consumption.

In sum, the findings about the effect of TV ads on children in the foreign countries and local society are not conclusive. However, it can be sure that TV ads, parents, age, and peers have effects on children's cognitions, attitudes, and behaviors regarding product consumption. Further discussion will be made in line with this direction.

Chapter 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Overview

When talking about the effect of the television medium, we should not forget McLuhan and Fiore (1967) who pointed out that “medium is the message.” They emphasized that the kind of medium used to convey a message may be more important than the actual message itself. In the beginning of the book, they wrote that “Societies have always been shaped more by the nature of the media by which men communicate than by the content of the communication..... Electric technology fosters and encourages unification and involvement. It is impossible to understand social and cultural changes without a knowledge of the workings of media.”

Although the television medium could be regarded as a powerful machine, many scholars still believe that the content itself could not be overlooked. Hypodermic Needle Theory (Berlo, 1960) states that powerful stimuli are uniformly brought to the attention of individual members of a mass audience and those stimuli tap inner urges, emotions or other processes over which the individual has little voluntary control.

However, the Uses and Gratification Theory views the audience as an active participant in the consumption of mass media; the audience is purposive and goal-directed. Katz et. al. (1974) describe the logical steps of uses and gratifications approach as “the social and psychological origins of needs, which generate expectations of the mass media or other resources, which lead to differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in need gratifications and other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones.” As Ho (1977) and other researches point out, children watch television because they are not just curious, but

also they could find new information and entertainment from it.

B. Theory of Consumer Socialization

In the hope to understand the effects of television advertising on consumer behavior, researchers must seek three basic kinds of evidence (Seltiz, Wrightsman, and Cook, 1959):

- (1) Concomitant variation - correlation of television advertising with specific aspects of consumer behavior;
- (2) Time order of occurrence - advertising must occur before consumer behavior changes;
- (3) Elimination of other possible causal factor - elimination of other explanations of consumer behavior besides advertising.

Cross-sectional studies can only fulfill the first condition, but they cannot confirm the direction of the influence (e.g., Robertson et al., 1979). Many researches mentioned previously attempt to study the causality of television advertising. However, permanent effects could not be addressed (e.g., Goldberg et al., 1978; Gorn et al., 1980, 1982). Recently, interpersonal processes have been regarded to have mediating effects on TV advertising. Cognitive development is another alternative explanation of social learning effects. Therefore, the change of children's consumer behaviors would derive from cumulative exposure to ads with age, to learning from significant others, or to maturation and experience (Adler, 1977).

As the development of children's consumer behavior is affected by many factors, a process known as consumer socialization in which the children learn the proper consumer behaviors has been proposed (Ward, 1974). The term socialization refers to the process by which children acquire various patterns of cognitions and

behaviors (Goslin, 1969). Consumer socialization refers specifically to the process of learning consumer-related skills, knowledge, and attributes (Ward, 1974).

Consumer socialization research is based on two models of human learning: the social learning model and the cognitive learning model (Moschis and Moore, 1982). For the social learning theory, it emphasizes sources of influence - commonly known as socialization agents - which transmit norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviors to the learner. Mass media is one of the socialization agents. There are two main lines of thoughts concerning the mass media influence on consumer socialization:

- (1) One model perceives that the mass media are very powerful. It assumes that the media content produced direct audience effects (Bandura, 1971). Such notion is very similar to what Hypodermic Needle Theory suggests.
- (2) The "limited effect model" suggested that the mass media reinforce existing predisposition through selective exposure, and mass media effects are largely neutralized by interpersonal processes in a two-step flow. (Bauer, 1964; Klapper, 1960). In other words, the mass media may induce children to discuss consumption matters among themselves or with their parents and peers. Such mediation would make media exposure less likely to result in attitude formation and change than in reinforcement of existing attitudes.

For the cognitive development model, it explains that the formation of cognitions and behaviors occurred on the basis of qualitative change (stages) in the cognitive organization occurring between infancy and adulthood (Moschis and Moore, 1979).

When talking about the children's cognitive development, the contribution made by the Swedish child psychologist, Jean Piaget, in this area should not be forgotten. He was the foremost contributor to the field of children's cognitive

development (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969). Piaget's theory of cognitive development stressed the interaction of children's innate structures and processes with their external environment. Progression of conceptual learning appears to occur according to stages, and what is learned at one stage is a necessary condition for progression to the next. This theory predicts when the children grow older, their perception about the environment will change quantitatively and qualitatively (Piaget, 1970).

Piaget divides children's cognitive development into four main stages: the sensorimotor stages, the preoperational stage, the concrete operational stage, and the formal operational stage. In Piaget's theory, children under two years old are in the sensorimotor stages. At the end of the stage, the linguistic ability just begins to develop. Their cognitive development is in a primitive stage. Roughly speaking, the children are in the preoperational stage when they are two to seven years old. By the end of this stage, the children are able to categorize objects on the basis of their perceptions of similarity. Yet, they only have concrete concepts determined by their immediate perceptions, i.e. they can count but do not understand that total quantity remains unchanged when parts are rearranged or shapes are altered.

The children aged from eight to twelve are in the concrete operational stage. In this stage, the children are able to use logic and reasoning but only in the manipulation of concrete objects. They are not able to reason in abstract verbal propositions. Yet they do understand that total quantity remains the same even when shapes are changed or parts are rearranged.

Those children older than twelve are in the formal operational stage. They are able to deal with verbal expression of logical relations, to have achieved flexibility of thought, and able to think in abstraction. In other words, they have the cognitive abilities to detect the persuasive element in advertising.

Although Piaget's theory was useful in describing the age-related cognitive development, it is less than adequate as a theory of children's cognitive activity (Roedder, 1981). Piaget's cognitive structures described limits on children's capacity to process information, but they do not explain how or why children process information within these limits (Calder, Robertson, and Rossiter, 1975).

One of the most promising theories for understanding how age differences influence reactions to television advertising is information-processing theory. According to this view, the information from the TV ads will be stored in Short Term Memory (STM). STM will decay unless it can be transferred to Long Term Memory (LTM). The mechanism through which the transfers take place is by rehearsal and retrieval. For the young children, their shortcoming is that they are unable to utilize cognitive plans for storing and retrieving information. As a result, two types of deficiencies have been identified:

- (1) Children with production deficiencies have the capacity to use storage and retrieval strategies as a means for remembering information. But this capacity is used only when they are prompted to do so.
- (2) Children with mediational deficiencies can follow instructions to use storage and retrieval strategies, but cannot utilize the strategies to enhance remembering.

Based on these two deficiencies, Roedder (1981) distinguished three types of processors. Strategic processors are typically older children who possess and use the skills necessary to store and retrieve information. Cue processors exhibit production deficiencies in that they are capable of using storage and retrieval strategies only when prompted to do so. Limited processors, usually are very young, exhibit mediational deficiencies. These children cannot use storage and retrieval strategies to enhance learning even when prompted to do so. That is the reason why

when the choice alternatives are similar, many in number, or require the processing of detailed information, younger children's comparison abilities may be overtaxed which result in attitudinally inconsistent choices (Roedder et al., 1983).

C. A Conceptual Framework for Consumer Socialization

McLeod and O'Keefe (1972) pointed out that a complete socialization theory must deal with five types of variables: learning properties, agent or the source of the influence, learning processes involved in socialization, social structural constraints affecting learning; and age or life cycle position of the person being influenced.

Learning properties are one of the major focuses of socialization research. It can be divided into (1) those properties that help a person function in any given system and (2) those properties that are related to a person's individual behavior, regardless of the standards set by any larger system. It can refer to a variety of consumer-related cognitions and behaviors that comprise the concept of consumer behaviors, such as attitudes toward saving and spending and brand preferences.

A socialization agent may refer to a person or organization such as parents or mass media. The agents are involved in socialization because of frequency of contact with the individuals, primacy over the individual, and control over rewards and punishments given to the individual (Brim, 1966). The agent-learner relationship is very important in the socialization model. Talmon (1963) classified these agent-learner relationships into four categories on the basis of the formality of the type of agent and whether the role of learner is specified or not:

- (1) formal organization (agent), role of learner specified (e.g., school);
- (2) formal organization, role of learner not specified (e.g., mass media);

- (3) informal organization, role of learner specified (e.g., family);
- (4) informal organization, role of learner not specified (e.g., peers).

The role of learner in school and family is specified in a way that the children should abide by some rules and regulations. In the school, the children have to attend class and designated activities; at home, the parents may use reward and punishment to educate the children how to make use of their money in a more responsible manner.

Social structural variables are factors, such as socioeconomic status, sex, and birth order, that help locate the learner within his/her social environment, where learning takes place. Social variables can have a direct as well as indirect effect in socialization, by influencing learning processes (McLeod and O'Keefe, 1972).

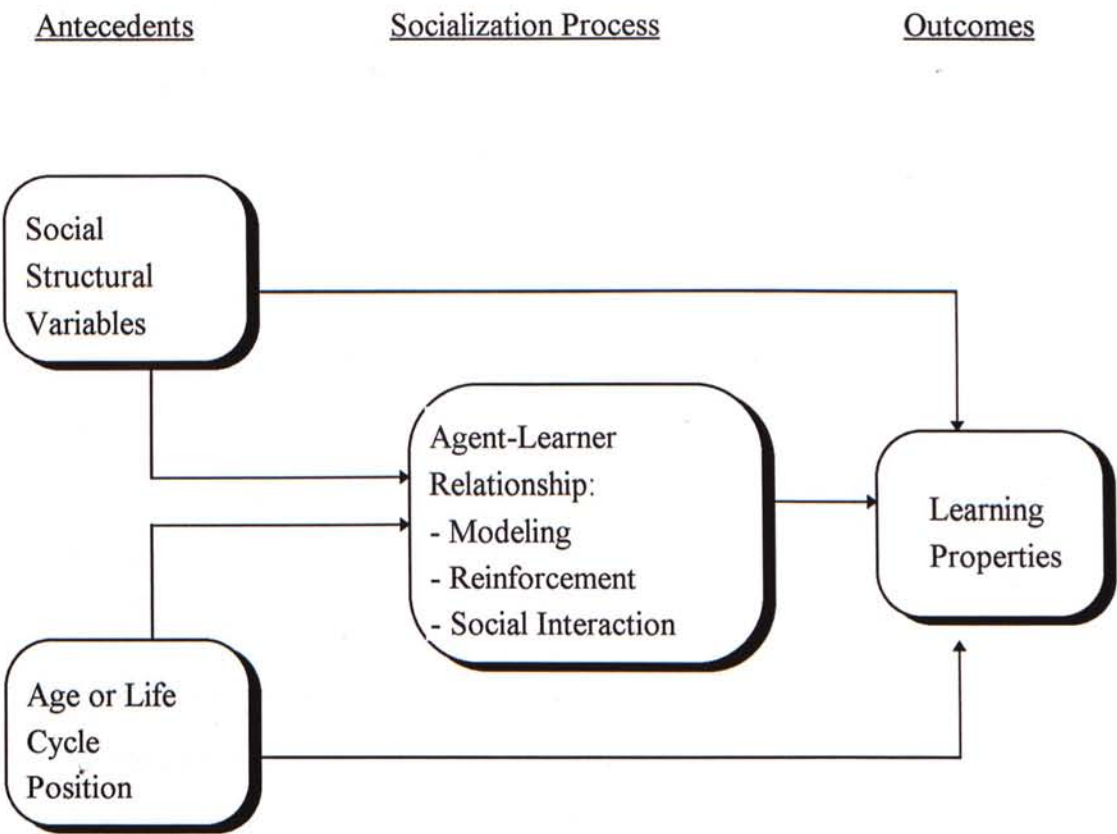
Age or life cycle position refers to a person's lifetime span during which learning occurs. It is used to index a person's cognitive development of life cycle stages. Previous theory and researches suggest that people at different age or life cycles may be influenced differently by same environmental factors (Ward et al., 1977), and they may react differently to stimuli in general and commercial stimuli in particular (Phillips and Sternthal, 1977).

Learning processes refer to the mechanisms through which the agent influences the learner. They can be classified into three categories: modeling, reinforcement, and social interaction. Modeling, which is also known as observational learning, involves imitation of the agent's behavior. For example, a child imitates his parents' behaviors because he wants to be like them. Reinforcement involves either reward (positive reinforcement) or punishment (negative reinforcement). A person learns to copy more past behaviors because they are rewarded by the influencing agents, or they will avoid those behaviors for which he has been punished. Social interaction is less specific and it may involve a combination of modeling and

reinforcement. The development of personal attitudes, values, and behaviors is the result of social interaction with significant others in his surroundings (Moschis, 1978a).

In figure 1, a conceptual model of consumer socialization was developed by Moschis and Churchill (1978) based on the above propositions.

Figure 1: A Conceptual Model of Consumer Socialization



In this conceptual model, social structural variables and age or life cycle position are antecedent variables. They may affect acquisition of consumer learning properties (outcome) both directly and indirectly through their impact on the socialization processes. About social structural variables, previous studies clearly indicate that the level of consumer-related knowledge may vary by sex, with males

possessing greater amount of such information (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). A study by Moschis and Churchill (1978) also confirmed that sex is significantly related to the difference in acquisition of consumer attitudes and skills. Males appear to know more about consumer matters and hold stronger materialistic attitudes. Also, Moschis and Moore (1978) finds that young people from low-income homes are less knowledgeable about their consumer environment than youngsters from upper-income homes who have more opportunities for consumption.

Consumer socialization is based on cognitive development theory. This theory speculates that children's cognitive ability will develop as the children grow older. Therefore, we could predict that older children could acquire more consumer skills than younger one. The study by Moschis and Moore (1978) supported this line of reasoning. Older children scored significantly higher on brand knowledge, price accuracy, legal knowledge and role conception measures than did their younger counterparts.

The socialization process incorporates both the socialization agent and the type of learning actually operating. The impact of three consumer socialization agents - parents, mass media, and peers - are often investigated. These three socialization agents, suggested in previous research, may play a very important role in consumer socialization (Ward, 1974). Research findings show that young people and children are likely to discuss with their parents products they have seen advertised on television (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Burr and Burr, 1977). Also, other research indicates that young people and children who pay attention to TV ads, discuss them with their peers (Ward and Wackman, 1971; Moore and Stephens, 1975).

Regarding the relationships among the socializing agents, some studies reveal that children would like to talk with their parents about what they have seen in

TV ads (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Caron and Ward, 1975). Also, children are likely to share with their peers about TV commercials. From these findings, we can speculate that TV advertising can result in more interaction between children and their parents and peers regarding the consumption matters.

The learning of consumer behavior appears to involve the acquisition of a wide variety of properties (cognitions and behaviors) which are often referred to as "consumer skills". Since consumer behaviors consist of too many variables to be handled in a single research. The consumer skills or attitudes chosen to be studied depend on the boundary or scope of the study. For example, Moschis and Moore (1979) adopted a consumer decision-making process as their topic of study. They viewed that the formation of decision-making properties not only as a social process, but also as a cognitive developmental process of adjustment to one's environment. The learning cognitions and behaviors analyzed in their study included a number of variables related to various stages in the consumer decision-making process (information seeking, product evaluation, and purchase). Consumer decision-making process can be considered as one of the outcomes which is the result of interaction with children and their socializing agents.

The conceptual model of consumer socialization can depict well how different factors influence the consumer skills and behaviors of children. It points out that television advertising is not the sole agent to affect children's consumption behaviors. Through the interaction with other socialization agents, children would develop their consumer skills. Most of the local researches only focused on the direct relationship between the TV advertising and the children's attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors. Therefore, it is worthwhile to replicate a study using the consumer socialization model to investigate how different socialization agents influence the consumption behaviors of children in Hong Kong.

Chapter 4: RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Objectives

In Western countries, many research studies have been done on the effect of TV ads on children. However, in Hong Kong, few people have been concerned with this issue. Only a few organizations have conducted some simple surveys, but which could not systematically dig out the truth. Since Hong Kong children have spent a great deal of time on watching television, the effect of TV ads on them should be an issue that needs our concern.

In Hong Kong, conducting an experimental study would encounter insurmountable difficulties. For example, the principals or the teachers may not cooperate with the researcher, or the children's parents do not give consent to the school authority to implement such experiment. Also, it is financially not feasible to produce a commercial for the experiment. Though a cross-sectional study investigating how different socialization agents take effect on children's purchase behaviors does not fulfill all criteria proposed by Seltiz et al. (1959), it is more feasible. In this study, we adopt the consumer socialization model to assess how different socialization agents, especially the TV media, affect the consumption behaviors of children in Hong Kong. With the conceptual framework described in chapter three, the following objectives are proposed:

- (1) To study how age, sex, and socialization agents are related to the consumption behaviors of children in Hong Kong.
- (2) To explore how socialization agents mediate the effect of age, sex, and each other on children's attitude towards TV ads, saving pattern, and consumer decision-making process.

- (3) To look into what implications the study of how TV commercials affect the consumption behaviors of children in Hong Kong would bring to the attention of people concerned.

B. Variables and Operational Definition

1. Independent Variables

From Figure 1, the social structural variables and age can be taken as independent variables. The social structural variable in this study will be the sex of the respondents. The socio-economic status variable is discarded because of several reasons. First, it is quite difficult to construct a reliable index to measure SES. Second, due to the shortage of manpower, we cannot involve the pupils' parents in this study. Therefore, we cannot afford to get the relevant information directly from respondents' parents. Birth order is also one of the social structural variables. But with reference to the 1996 by-census statistics, the average number of children of a married couple is only 1.9 (Census and Statistics Department, 1996). The difference in birth order among the respondents would not be too great. As a result, the variable is not adopted.

Concerning the life cycle variable, the age of respondents will be confined to 8- to 12-year-old. Those children older than twelve years old are not included because they are in formal operational stage. They are equipped the necessary cognitive ability to identify the persuasive intent of the TV commercials. Or they are the strategic processors who can store and retrieve the information very easily. For those children in the sensorimotor stage (0-2), their cognitive development is at a very primitive stage, and they cannot comprehend what is TV advertising. As a result, they are excluded in this study.

For those children between three to seven years old, they are in the preoperational stage. Their linguistics and comprehension ability are still not well developed. Communicating with them is rather difficult. On the other hand, the 8- to 12-year-old children can express themselves comparatively well, and their cognitive abilities are less developed to cope with the persuasive message in the advertising. Also, they could exhibit greater differentiation between programs and commercials (Ward, 1974). Therefore, they are chosen as the target group in this study.

2. Dependent Variables

The learning properties will be regarded as dependent variables. As mentioned previously, the learning properties involve a wide range of attitudes and skills in relation to consumption and consumer role. In this study, the focus will be on the attitude of the children towards TV ads, saving pattern and the consumer decision-making process.

For the attitude, it could be defined as children's feeling towards TV commercials and their reaction to TV advertising as a social institution. Rossiter (1977) administered an attitudinal test to a sample of 208 children at a suburban Philadelphia primary school. The sample covered grade four, five and six (ages 9 through 12). The questionnaire items reflect a range of affective reactions toward TV commercials:

- (1) perceived truthfulness;
- (2) potential annoying qualities;
- (3) objectivity in describing advertised products;
- (4) overall likability;
- (5) perceived persuasive power;

- (6) believability of characters;
- (7) trustworthiness as guides to product purchase.

The short test was found to have satisfactory internal-consistency and test-retest reliability. Riecken and Samli (1981) extends the reliability assessment of Rossiter's short objective test for measuring children's attitudes towards television commercials. The test is extended to three specific product categories, and Rossiter's original scale is also replicated. In all cases, high internal consistency and moderate test-retest reliability are found. The scale is composed of seven statements with four response alternatives ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The responses are summed up to form a 7- to 28-points index.

To our knowledge, children do not need to have money because food and products are provided by their parents. But very often, parents would give their children some pocket money to buy candy or soft drink. In fact, some parents would use this pocket money to please their children and to prepare their children to be consumers (McNeal, 1987). With respect to the former, children would always request their parents to buy a lot of things, such as candy, snack, toys...etc. With a little more pocket money, children learn to save it up so that they can fulfill their desire by themselves. Moreover, pocket money could be a tool for parents to reward good behaviors of their children. As stated previously, reinforcement is a kind of learning process in which children learn consumer skills and behaviors.

Regarding the latter, parents should prepare their children to be self-sufficiency at adulthood later (McNeal, 1987). Most of the parents would expect that their children could be financially independent as soon as they enter into the adulthood. Therefore, if the learning and acquisition of financial management takes place earlier, the better their children can handle their money in the future.

The consumer decision-making process is a result of interaction among the children and their socialization agents. The process involves several stages, and they could be regarded as the outcome of the consumer socialization. Three stages are identified in the consumer decision-making process. The first stage is information seeking. It is defined as an expressed need to consult various sources of consumer information (Moschis and Moore, 1979). Children are asked to check with the person or places they would rely on most for information and advice before buying six group of products: candy, stationery, fast food, sports accessory, clothing, and toys. These products are selected because of two reasons. The first one is that the products are relevant to their life experiences. The second reason is that the products are advertised most on Hong Kong television. The author videotaped television programs of the Jade channel (the channel watched by 70% of Hong Kong viewers) from 3:30 p.m. to 5:45 p.m. (children's time) on March 6 and 7, 1997 and from 8:00 am to 12:00 p.m. on Sunday of March 16, 1997. The majority of the products advertised to the children fall on the above categories. Response alternatives are "friends," "TV ads," "one or both of my parents," and "newspaper or magazines." Children could check more than one source. Responses are summed across the six products for each source to form a 0- to 6-point index representing the children's tendency to seek information from that source. All the six product information indexes are added up to give a 0- to 24-point index measuring the total amount of information seeking.

The second stage is product evaluation. It refers to the extent to which the children judge products on various criteria. Children are requested to indicate how they would evaluate the same six products. Based on the research by Cateora (1963), the response categories chosen are "one that is on sale," "one that is advertised a lot," "one that my friends like," "one with a well-known brand name," and "one that my parents like." Respondents can check more than one criterion for each product.

Responses are summed across products to form a 0- to 6-point index representing the children's tendency to evaluate products using a particular criterion. All six indexes are combined to form a 0- to 30-point index measuring respondents' tendency to use how many criteria in product evaluation.

The last stage is purchase, and independent purchasing role structure is the analyzed variable. It refers to an individual's social environment during the actual act of purchasing. Children are asked to indicate how they would buy the six products - whether they would buy them alone, with friends, with their parents, or ask someone in the family to buy the item for them. Responses to the first two categories (alone or with friends) are combined to form a 0- to 6-point index representing the respondent's independence in purchasing.

3. Intervening Variables

Television advertising, family and peers would serve as the socialization agents which help children establish consumer attitudes and behaviors. They are the intervening variables in this study. As mentioned previously, school is also another socialization agent. However, no compulsory consumer education curriculum is incorporated in primary schools. Though there may be some related topics scattering in several subjects, we can assume that the effect of school on children's consumer socialization can be the same. Therefore, the effect of school as a socialization agent is not included in this study.

For television advertising to take effect, the target receivers must be exposed to it. If an advertising message cannot reach the audience, that advertisement could not have any effect on their behaviors. However, it is very difficult to measure how long the receivers are exposed to television advertisements because the

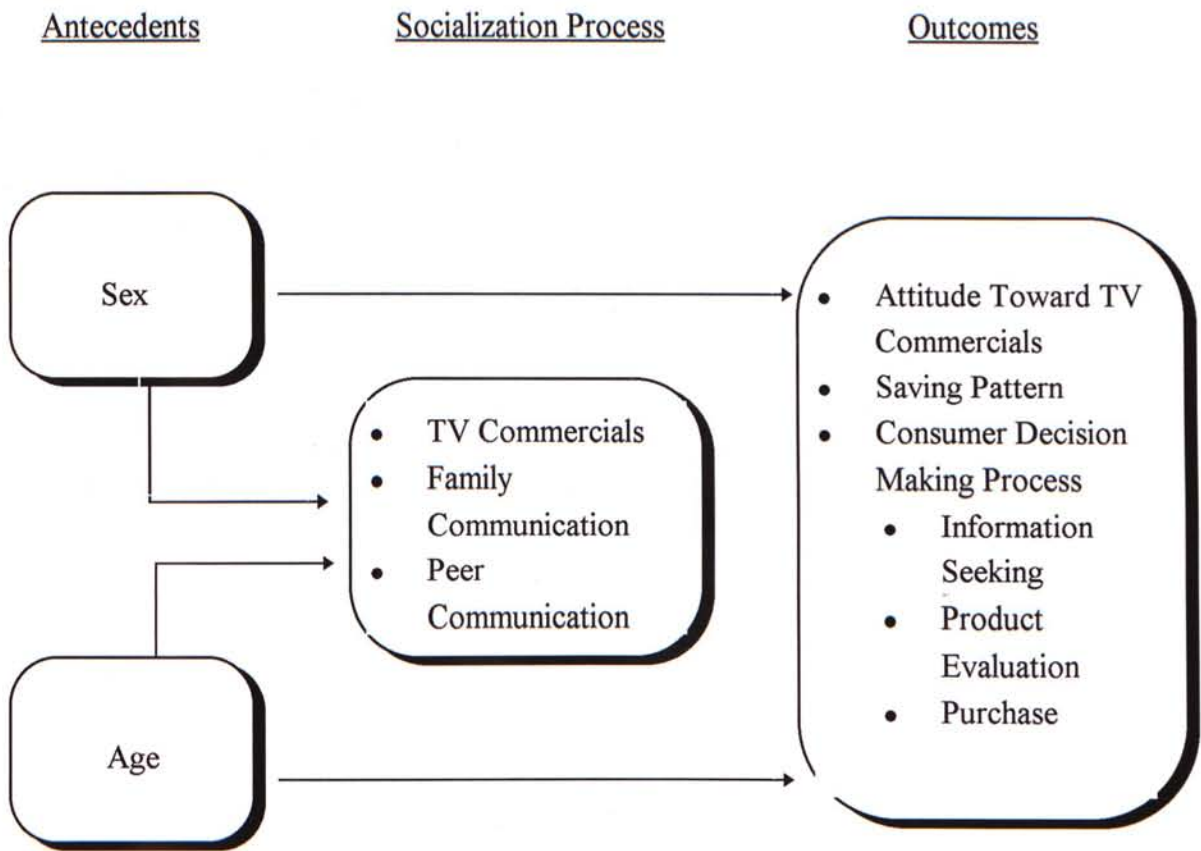
information in the form of audio-visual context is held a short time in sensory memory. Therefore, most advertisers assume the exposure to have taken place if the audience can be shown to have been exposed, not to the advertising, but to the media vehicle in which the advertising is placed (Percy and Rossiter, 1980). That is why many researchers use viewing frequency to measure the media exposure.

In this study, besides using the viewing frequency to measure the media exposure, we also propose to use motivation for TV ads viewing as the direct measure of the children's viewing of TV commercials for the motives of gathering information for consumer decision making as well as information about life styles and behaviors associated with consumer products. Some researchers suggested this measure of TV ads viewing along with motivations is a better measure of television advertising than gross measure of "time spent with" or "frequency of viewing" television (McLeod, 1974; Moschis and Moore, 1982). Motivation for TV ads viewing is measured by eight questions on a four-point scale with response alternatives varying from "very often" to "never". Responses are summed up to form a 8- to 32-point index measuring how motivated respondents watch TV ads. External validation of this measure was performed by correlating it with television viewing frequency as measured in previous study (Churchill and Moschis, 1979). The correlation was 0.23 ($p < 0.001$).

As an agent of socialization, family can have a great influence on children's acquisition of consumer skills. Recent researches show that children and young people learn consumer skills rationally from their parents (Riesman and Roseborough, 1955). A study by Moore and Stephens (1975) supported that overt parent-child communication about consumption predicted fairly well the children's knowledge of prices of selected products. To operationally define this agent-learner relationship, a concept of "Family Communication about Consumption" is adopted. It can be

defined as overt interaction between parent and children concerning goods and services (Moschis and Churchill, 1978). It is measured by summing response to twelve items. A typical item was "My parents and I talk about buying things," with responses measured on a four-point "very often" to "never" scale. The responses can be combined to form a 12- to 48-point index representing how frequent the respondents interact with their family about consumption.

Peers are also important sources of influence on children's consumption behaviors. Sociologists Riesman and Roseborough (1955) speculated that children learn "consumption necessities" from their parents, but "affective consumption" (style and moods of consumption) from peers. A concept of "Peer Communication about Consumption" is used to indicate the relationship between children and their peers about consumption. It is operationally defined as overt peer-children interaction concerning goods and services. It is measured by summing responses to six items, such as "my friends and I talk about buying things." The measurement is a four-point scale from "very often" to "never." Combining the responses, we can get a 6- to 24-point index measuring how often respondents interact with their peers regarding consumption. A revised model of consumer socialization is constructed as follows:

Figure 2: Revised Conceptual Model of Consumer Socialization

C. Hypotheses

With respect to the revised conceptual model, we can come up with the following hypotheses.

1. Sex

Several studies reveal that females have a stronger orientation towards their peers than do males (Hamilton and Warden, 1966; Solomon, 1963). Sociologists theorized that females associated more with their peers because they are not satisfied with their status in society. From peers' association, they can feel more certain of their competence and achievement for future roles (Lynn, 1959). For males, peers are not so important because they can have their success from education and

occupation. Boys' desire for personal achievements exceeded those of girls, while girls' wishes about social and family relations exceeded those of boys (Solomon, 1963). Based on these characteristics, we could expect that girls interact more frequently with their peers and families. As a result, they would seek more information from peers and families, use more peers' and families' preference in evaluating products, and purchase products more with peers and parents than males do.

H1: Females would interact more frequently with their (a) peers and (b) families about consumption than males do.

H2: Females would seek more product information from their (a) peers and (b) families than males do.

H3: Females would use more (a) peers' and (b) families' preferences in evaluating products than males do.

H4: Females would purchase products more with (a) peers and (b) parents than males do.

2. Age

Age is a good predictor of one's cognitive development. As children grow, they will acquire more information and skills. Studies show that maturation is associated with increasing skill in using a wide variety of information sources (Moschis, 1978b), applying a greater number of attributes in product evaluation, and engaging in more saving behaviors (Ward et al., 1977). It is also found that children will long for independence when they grow older. As a result, they will leave their parents psychologically and turn to their peers more frequently. The desire for

independence can be observed in the older children's tendency to buy things without parental supervision (Moschis et al., 1977). These findings suggest the following hypothesis.

- H5: As children grow older, they would like to (a) use more sources of consumer information prior to buying product, (b) use more preferences in evaluating product, (c) rely more on peers for information and advice in buying, (d) rely less on parents for information and advice in buying; (e) save more money and (f) prefer purchasing products alone or with peers.

3. Family

A research by Ward and Wackman (1973) indicates that parents' "general consumer goals" included teaching their children about price-quality relationships. Another research by Moore and Stephens (1975) finds that overall parent-children communication about consumption predicts quite accurately a child's knowledge of prices of selected products. These findings disclose that parents may encourage their children to use price as a criterion in evaluating products.

- H6: There is a positive relationship between the frequency of family communication about consumption and the extent to which children use price in product evaluation.
- H7: There is a positive relationship between the frequency of family communication about consumption and children's ability to manage their consumer finances.

4. Peer

As mentioned previously, when children grow older, they will turn to interact with their peers more frequently. Studies have speculated that children's preferences for products and brands are affected by their peers (Saunders et al., 1973; Ryan, 1966). As children interact more with their peers, they would learn more about their product preferences, and they will be more likely to take the opinions into account in product evaluation.

- H8: The more frequently children interact with peers about consumption, the greater the tendency to (a) seek product information from peers; (b) use peer preferences in evaluating products; and (c) to purchase products alone or with peers.

5. TV Commercials

Several researches manifest that children learn simple consumer skills from TV commercials. For example, Ward and Wackman (1971), and Keiser (1975) demonstrate that the recall of advertising slogan and attitude toward TV commercials are positively related to the amount of television viewing. As a result, the following hypotheses can be formulated.

- H9: The more children are motivated to watch television commercials, the more they would seek product information and evaluate products from TV ads.

- H10: The level of motivation to view television advertising correlates positively with the children's positive attitudes toward TV advertising.

A number of researches have documented that children's liking of TV advertising declines significantly with age. In a study by Robertson and Rossiter (1974), the percentage of children who expressed that they liked all TV commercials was shown to decrease from 69 per cent at first grade to 56 per cent by third grade and to 25 per cent by fifth grade.

- H11: Children's positive attitudes toward TV commercials will decline significantly with age.

Research findings of several studies show that children would like to discuss with their parents the products they have seen advertised on television (Ward and Wackman, 1972; Caron and Ward, 1975). Also, children would also like to talk with their peers about TV commercials (Ward and Wackman, 1971; Moore and Stephens, 1975). Based on these findings and speculations, it is expected that the motivation to watch TV ads would be related positively to children's frequency of interaction with their family and peers regarding consumption matters.

- H12: The level of motivation to view television advertising correlates positively with the family and peer communication about consumption.

D. Sampling

A complete list of the primary schools in Hong Kong was obtained from the Education Department. Moreover, the number of pupils enrolled in primary three to primary six was made available from the Statistical Unit of Education Department (see Appendix II). Since we do not have any data about the standard deviation of the key variables in this study, only to allow 5.0% sampling error and 95% confident level, we should have at least 400 subjects (De Vaus, 1986).

A cluster sampling method is adopted in this study. First of all, an unique number was assigned to each primary schools. Using the random table, we select twenty schools from the sampling list (see Appendix III). A letter of request (see Appendix IV) together with a sample questionnaire was sent to the school principals. After confirming the request was accepted, we randomly selected one class from primary three to primary six in each school. In other words, there should be four classes of pupils completing the questionnaires in each school. Eventually, we received positive feedback from six schools, and a total of 644 questionnaires were collected.

E. Data Collection

Before the data collection, the questionnaire was converted to Chinese first. The translation was made by a Language Officer to make sure the meaning would stick to the English version (see Appendix V). Later, the Chinese questionnaire (see Appendix VI) was proof-read by an experienced primary school Chinese Language teacher. This process guaranteed that the pupils could understand what they were asked to do.

A pilot test was conducted in a primary school in Tai Po. Thirty primary-three pupils participated in the study. Only primary-three pupils were chosen in the pilot test because their comprehension would most likely be the lowest. If they could understand the questionnaires, the pupils of primary four or above would not have any problems. After the test, some typos were detected, and several questions were re-phrased so that their meanings could be clarified.

The data collection was completed from April 8, 1997 to April 26, 1997. After entering into the classroom, the researcher stressed the following points to the pupils:

- (1) there were no right or wrong answers;
- (2) the information they provided was kept highly confidential and was destroyed after the research;
- (3) discussion with your neighboring classmates was unnecessary because everyone's answers would be different; and
- (4) the participation was voluntary, and they had the right not to join the study.

When finishing the above briefing, the researcher distributed the questionnaires to the pupils. Throughout the process, the researcher read and explained each question first, and the pupils gave the answers then. The same explanations were kept and observed across all the classes and schools. After completing the questionnaires, each pupil was given a small souvenir in appreciation of their cooperation.

F. Coding Procedure

Since each of the answers in the questionnaire had already been assigned a score, it was unnecessary to copy the same score in the coding sheet. Therefore, the

scores were directly input in the computer. After the data input, following recoding procedures and computations were made. First, for the scale of Attitude Towards TV Ads, statement two, three and five were recoded because they were scored reversely. Second, the statements for the four scales, Television Advertising Viewing, Attitude towards TV Ads, Family Communication about Consumption and Peer Communication about Consumption were recoded so that higher scores represented the higher frequency or more favorable attitude. Third, a single index was computed for the four scales respectively.

Fourth, for the Information Seeking, the responses were summed across each product to form an index representing how much the respondents sought information from that source. An overall index was also made by summing all to indicate how much information they would seek from various sources. Fifth, for the Product Evaluation, it was similar to the Information Seeking. A single index was made to indicate how respondents evaluated the product, and an overall index was generated by adding up all the responses to indicate how many evaluation criteria they would rely on.

Finally, for the Independent Purchase Role Structure, the score for the first two categories (buy alone and buy with friends) were combined to form an 0- to 6-index of independent purchase.

G. Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis was processed using Statistical Package for Social Science Release 6.0 for Windows. A respondents' profile which consisted of the frequency tables of the key variables would be shown first. Afterwards, reliability tests were made for the scales. Then, a number of statistical tools such as t-test,

Pearson's coefficient and ANOVA were used to test whether the aforementioned hypotheses could be accepted or not.

Chapter 5 : DATA ANALYSIS

A. Respondents' Profile

A total number of 644 questionnaires were collected from twenty-four classes of six primary schools. Two schools are in the rural area of New Territories. Another two are in Hong Kong Islands. One is in Wanchai, and the other in Quarry Bay. The location of these two schools are in the middle level income residential area. The last two are in Kowloon side: one is in Jordan, and the other Kwun Tong.

Sixty-three questionnaires were not included in the data analysis because of the following reasons. First, twenty-one respondents were over thirteen-years-old. Since their ages fell outside the age range of our target, we exclude them in our analysis. In chapter four, we stated that the target of this study should be in concrete operational stage. In other words, the age of the subject should be from 8- to 12-year-old. Since the differentiation for each stage is not absolute, 13-year-old pupils are also included in this study. Second, nine questionnaires were rejected because the respondents did not write their age which was a key variable in this study. Third, eighteen questionnaires were not included because they wrote that their TV viewing hours were over ten hours each day. Considering the school hours and rest time, ten hours should be the maximum time that a child can afford. Fourth, fifteen of them had too many missing data. Therefore, they were not included in the subsequent data analysis. As a result, we had 581 valid questionnaires for this study, and the success rate is about 90.2%.

1. Sex

Among the 581 respondents, the number of males is more than female.

When compared with the population of the same age in 1996 (Census and Statistics Department, 1996), this sample skewed to the male a little bit (Table 1).

Table 1 Comparison of the Distribution of Sex Between the Sample and the Whole Population

Sex	Sample		Population	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
MALE	320	55.1	252666	51.4
FEMALE	261	44.9	238552	48.6
Total	581	100.0	491218	100.0

2. Age

The average age of the sample is 10.24, and the standard deviation is 1.23. The ratio among age 9 to 11 is 1: 1.19: 1.23. Age 8, age 12 and age 13 are not included because some 8-year-old pupils study primary two, and 12-year-old or above would study secondary school (Table 2). With respect to the whole population of the same age group, the ratio among age 9 to 11 is 1: 1.01: 1.05 (Table 3).

Table 2: Distribution of Age of the Sample

Age	Frequency	Percent
8	61	10.5
9	122	21.0
10	145	25.0
11	150	25.8
12	78	13.4
13	25	4.3
Total	581	100.0

Table 3: Distribution of Age of the Population

Age	Frequency	Percent
8	74305	15.1
9	78295	15.9
10	79244	16.1
11	82202	16.7
12	86773	17.7
13	90399	18.4
Total	491218	100.0

3. Grade

The distribution of the grade of the sample is much similar to the data given by Education Department (1996) (Table 4). In view of the age, sex and the grade, the characteristics of the sample are close to the same age group of the whole population.

Therefore, we have confidence to say that this is a representative sample.

Table 4: Comparison of the Distribution of Grade Between the Sample and the Whole Population

Sample			Population	
Grade	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
P3	144	24.8	75055	23.9
P4	145	25.0	76156	24.3
P5	157	27.0	81173	25.9
P6	135	23.2	81143	25.9
Total	581	100.0	313527	100.0

4. TV Viewing Hours

Among the respondents, on average, they spend 4.1 hours to watch TV every day. The mode is four hours. Nineteen of them even watch TV up to nine hours or above each day (Table 5). If we use the sex as the control variables, the mean viewing hours for male is 4.1 hours and female 4.0 hours. The difference is not statistically significant ($t\text{-value}=0.91$ and $p=0.366$).

However, if we use the age as the control variable, we could observe that the older the children, the more they watch TV every day (Table 6). Surprisingly, there is also a difference among the pupils in different schools. Those pupils in Kowloon watch most TV; those pupils in the mid-level watch least TV. Perhaps those pupils' parents in the mid-level would put more restrictions on their children's TV watching. The difference is statistically significant (Table 7).

Table 5: Distribution of TV Viewing

TV Viewing Hours	Frequency	Percent
1 hour or below	50	8.6
1.1 hours to 2.0 hours	84	14.5
2.1 hours to 3.0 hours	113	19.4
3.1 hours to 4.0 hours	113	19.4
4.1 hours to 5.0 hours	89	15.3
5.1 hours to 6.0 hours	48	8.3
6.1 hours or above	84	14.5
Total	581	100.0

Table 6: Average TV Viewing Hours in Each Age Group

Age	Number of Pupils	Mean TV Viewing Hours
8	61	3.6
9	122	3.5
10	145	3.9
11	150	4.4
12	78	4.8
13	25	4.8

F= 5.937 p<.000

Table 7: Average TV Viewing Hours of Pupils in Different Schools

School	Number of Pupils	Mean TV Viewing Hours
Po Kok (N.T.)	107	4.06
Yau Tam Mei (N.T.)	54	4.17
Ling Nam (H.K.)	69	3.26
Buddhist Chung Wah (H.K.)	127	3.28
Canton Road (KLN)	92	4.78
Yeung Chung Ming (KLN)	132	4.67

F= 10.3964 p<.000

5. Pocket Money

On average, the respondents have 33.5 dollars for pocket money every week. The maximum is 500 dollars, and 128 of them have no pocket money at all (Table 8). For males, they have an average of 34.2 dollars for pocket money each week, and females have 32.8 dollars. Such difference cannot exceed the confident level. However, the difference in the means of the pocket money among pupils by age is statistically significant (F=5.9518, p<.000, Table 9).

Table 8: Distribution of Pocket Money

Amount	Frequency	Percentage
0.0 to 1.0	128	22.0
1.1 to 10.0	93	16.0
10.1 to 20.0	75	12.9
20.1 to 30.0	66	11.4
30.1 to 40.0	44	7.6
40.1 to 50.0	49	8.4
50.1 to 60.0	23	4.0
60.1 to 70.0	24	4.1
70.1 or above	66	11.4
Missing	13	2.2
Total	581	100.0

Table 9: Average Weekly Pocket Money by Age Group

Age	Number of Pupils	Mean Weekly Pocket Money
8	60	15.3
9	118	22.6
10	141	35.7
11	147	38.9
12	77	42.6
13	25	57.1
F= 5.9518		p<.000

6. Expenses

On average, respondents spend 17.5 dollars every week. Over two hundred of them do not spend a penny (Table 10). Since 128 of them do not have any pocket money, there are 84 respondents who save up all their pocket money. Similar to the

trend of pocket money, the older the children, the more they would expend their pocket money (Table 11).

Table 10: Distribution of Money Expenses

Amount	Frequency	Percentage
0.0 to 1.0	212	36.5
1.1 to 10.0	143	24.6
10.1 to 20.0	70	12.0
20.1 to 30.0	50	8.6
30.1 to 40.0	28	4.8
40.1 to 50.0	23	4.0
50.1 to 60.0	12	2.1
60.1 to 70.0	5	0.9
70.1 or above	25	4.3
Missing	13	2.2
Total	581	100.0

Table 11: Average Weekly Expenses of Pocket Money by Age Group

Age	Number of Pupils	Mean Weekly Expenses
8	60	5.4
9	118	10.7
10	141	19.7
11	147	19.3
12	77	23.5
13	25	37.7

F= 5.8687 p<.000

Deducting the expenses from the pocket money, we can obtain how much the respondents save every week. The mean saving money is 16.0 dollars. The older children save a little more than the younger one, and the difference is statistically significant (Table 12).

Table 12: Average Weekly Saving of Pocket Money by Age Group

Age	Number of Pupils	Mean Saving Money
8	60	9.9
9	118	11.9
10	141	16.0
11	147	19.7
12	77	19.1
13	25	19.4

F= 2.4170 p<.035

7. Product Information Seeking

Parents are the most important source of information for children when they are purchasing products. On average, they are nearly twice as important as any other source of information across all products. Especially when the price of the products is relatively high, such as sports accessories and clothing, children would have to ask their parents. Seeking information from friends would occur more frequently when buying candy, stationery, and toys (Table 13).

Table 13: Percentage of Children Preferring Sources of Information in Purchasing Products

Product	Friends	TV ads	Parents	Newspaper/ Magazines
Candy	47.3	23.8	60.6	13.9
Stationery	37.9	16.0	70.1	12.2
Sports Accessories	24.3	24.1	75.2	19.6
Fast Food	22.9	25.1	73.1	14.8
Toys	36.0	28.7	67.5	19.4
Clothing	16.9	18.8	88.3	15.7
Average Percent	30.9	22.8	72.5	15.9

N=581. The sum of each product is not equal to 100 per cent because of multiple responses.

At first glance, TV advertising as a source of information seems not to be very important. However, if we add up the average percentage of source information from TV ads and newspaper and magazine, the figure is close to 38% and even exceeds the information source from peers. Moreover, if we break down the table by age group, it is obvious that for older children ($\text{age} \geq 11$), the information source from mass media and peers are increasing. Meanwhile, the product information from parents is decreasing (Table 14).

Table 14: Percentage of Children Preferring Sources of Information in Purchasing Products by Age Group

Product	Friends		TV ads		Parents		Newspaper/ Magazines	
	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old
Candy	47.3	47.4	21.3	26.9	68.9	49.8	12.8	15.4
Stationery	30.8	47.0	17.4	14.2	78.7	58.9	10.1	15.0
Sports Accessories	18.0	32.4	21.0	28.1	81.7	66.8	16.2	24.1
Fast Food	18.3	28.9	22.3	28.9	78.4	66.4	11.9	18.6
Toys	34.5	37.9	26.5	31.6	74.4	58.5	13.7	26.9
Clothing	12.5	22.5	14.9	23.7	90.9	85.0	11.9	20.6
Average Percent	26.9	36.0	20.6	25.6	78.8	64.2	12.8	20.1

Young Children (age ≤ 10). Old Children (age ≥ 11).

N=581. The sum of each product is not equal to 100 per cent because of multiple responses.

8. Product Evaluation

Children are very sensitive to the product price. The main criterion that they use to evaluate product is whether it is on sale, and this is even more important than the advice from the parents. Children do use TV ads as criterion to choose toys and fast food. Since the identification of brand name could be a result of media exposure, using the preference by brand name can be considered as a indirect consequence of media influence. Therefore, if we add up the average percentage of preference from TV ads and brand name, the figure climbs to 45.2%. In this regard, the media influence just comes next to the price (Table 15).

Table 15: Percentage of Children Using Criteria in Evaluating Products

Product	One on Sale	One Advertised A Lot	One Friends Like	One With a Well Known Brand Name	One Parents Like
Candy	64.7	20.1	15.0	18.2	36.3
Stationery	54.6	15.3	16.2	25.3	22.4
Sports Accessories	54.4	20.8	10.0	35.6	40.6
Fast Food	36.8	27.0	10.0	10.5	50.9
Toys	64.7	25.5	21.3	24.8	24.4
Clothing	60.1	14.5	5.9	33.9	56.8
Average Percent	55.9	20.5	13.1	24.7	38.6

N=581. The sum of each product is not equal to 100 per cent because of multiple responses.

9. Purchasing Role Structure

In general, children purchase products more often with their family members. Particularly when the price of products is high, such as sports accessories and clothing, children would buy them in the presence of their parents. Children buy things alone when the product price is low such as candy and stationery. To buy things with peers have the similar trend with buying alone though the percentage is a little bit lower (Table 16).

Table 16: Purchasing Role Structures for Products that Children Use

Product	Buy Alone	Buy With Friends	Buy With My Parents	Ask Someone In The Family To Buy	Missing
Candy	33.9	16.2	39.1	10.8	0.0
Stationery	31.8	16.7	41.8	9.1	0.5
Sports Accessories	5.7	10.2	72.6	11.4	0.2
Fast Food	17.2	11.7	55.9	15.0	0.2
Toys	19.1	15.7	54.4	10.3	0.5
Clothing	5.0	4.8	77.5	12.2	0.5
Average Percent	18.8	12.6	56.9	11.5	0.3

N=581.

B. Scales Reliability

1. Attitude Towards TV Commercials

This scale consists of seven statements. The items of the scale indicates the affective reactions towards TV commercials. The answer for each item ranges from “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree” and “strongly disagree”. Table 17 shows the item response distributions.

Table 17: Item Response Distribution of Attitude Towards TV Commercials

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
ATT_1	2.8%	21.7%	56.8%	18.8%
ATT_2*	12.2%	33.6%	42.3%	11.9%
ATT_3*	54.7%	24.3%	9.5%	11.5%
ATT_4	6.7%	24.4%	44.8%	24.1%
ATT_5*	13.9%	40.4%	36.5%	9.1%
ATT_6	1.9%	11.7%	54.9%	31.5%
ATT_7	3.3%	8.4%	53.0%	35.3%

* The scores of these items are reversed. N=581.

Summing up the responses of the seven items, an index score can be obtained. The higher scores indicate that pupils have greater liking for TV commercials. The Cronbach's alpha of this scale is 0.4906. Conventionally, a scale could be regarded reliable when Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.6. In view of the item-total statistics, item three is deleted from the scale so that the alpha value can be raised to 0.5668 (Table 18).

Table 18: Item-total Statistics of Attitude Towards TV Commercials Scale

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
ATT_1	12.4991	6.5746	.3032	.1699	.4264
ATT_2	12.0448	6.4014	.2446	.0939	.4474
ATT_3	12.8055	6.9949	.0260	.0095	.5668
ATT_4	12.4458	5.9751	.3529	.1471	.3946
ATT_5	12.1756	6.5933	.2076	.0467	.4642
ATT_6	12.7435	6.5496	.3259	.1886	.4188
ATT_7	12.7866	6.6164	.2803	.1253	.4348

Alpha = .4906

Guilford suggested that for a well-constructed test, item-intercorrelations should be between .10 and .60 (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973). In Table 19, one can see that all coefficients except one fall within this range. Guilford also stated that the item-total correlations should range .30 and .80. In fact, the item-total coefficients of the new scale range from .4981 to .6280, indicating a very even set of item-total contributions. Although the Cronbach's alpha does not exceed 0.6, it is rather close. Therefore, we would adopt the scale to test the positive attitude of respondents towards the TV commercials.

Table 19: Item Intercorrelations and Correlations with the Total Attitude Score

Item	ATT_2	ATT_4	ATT_5	ATT_6	ATT_7	TOTAL
ATT_1	.1487	.1698	.0923	.3718	.2329	.5637
ATT_2		.2745	.1113	.0989	.1459	.5540
ATT_4			.1565	.2134	.2303	.6280
ATT_5				.1388	.1192	.4981
ATT_6					.2565	.5787
ATT_7						.5648

2. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

This scale consists of eight statements which indicate how motivated the respondents watch TV commercials. The item response distribution is displayed in Table 20. Most respondents often watch TV ads because they want to find out how good a product is, where they can buy some things they want, to know about the fashionable products, and simply watch for fun.

Table 20: Item Response Distribution of Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

Item	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
TV_1	7.1%	44.9%	35.3%	12.7%
TV_2	6.0%	22.0%	40.4%	31.5%
TV_3	6.4%	23.9%	41.3%	28.4%
TV_4	15.8%	42.7%	27.7%	13.8%
TV_5	7.7%	27.2%	32.7%	32.4%
TV_6	21.2%	30.8%	27.4%	20.7%
TV_7	6.7%	18.1%	32.7%	42.5%
TV_8	17.0%	25.6%	32.5%	24.8%

N=581.

With respect to the reliability test, the Cronbach’s value of this scale is .7260. Moreover, all item-intercorrelation coefficients fall within .10 and .60. Also, the item-total correlations range from .5283 to .6296 (Table 21). All these evidences indicate that the scale has high internal-consistency reliability.

Table 21: Item Intercorrelations and Correlations with the Total Attitude Score

Item	TV_2	TV_3	TV_4	TV_5	TV_6	TV_7	TV_8	Total
TV_1	.3556	.4414	.2800	.1932	.2773	.2808	.2453	.6296
TV_2		.3689	.2485	.2468	.3341	.2350	.1208	.6060
TV_3			.3181	.2405	.2253	.2729	.1639	.6268
TV_4				.2189	.2939	.2578	.1556	.5845
TV_5					.2192	.2207	.2065	.5450
TV_6						.2056	.1496	.5913
TV_7							.3565	.6026
TV_8								.5283

3. Family Communication about Consumption

Responses to items of this scale are measured on a 4-point “Very often-Never” Likert-type scale. The scale scores reflect the overt interaction between parent and children concerning buying goods and services. The distribution of the item responses is shown in Table 22. Concerning the scale, the responses “very often” and “often” occur more frequently in the following items:

Item 1: My parents tell me what things I should or should not buy.

Item 2: My parents want to know what I do with my money.

Item 4: My parents complain when they don’t like something I bought for myself.

Item 7: I ask my parents for advice about buying things.

Item 9: I go shopping with my parents.

From item 6, we can see that most of the parents do not talk with their children concerning the products in the advertisement.

Table 22: Item Response Distribution of Family Communication about Consumption

Item	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
FAM_1	38.7%	40.8%	15.8%	4.6%
FAM_2	39.1%	27.2%	19.3%	14.5%
FAM_3	21.9%	35.3%	27.5%	15.3%
FAM_4	34.9%	27.2%	24.4%	13.4%
FAM_5	21.2%	29.6%	27.0%	22.2%
FAM_6	7.6%	16.4%	30.3%	45.8%
FAM_7	42.7%	29.9%	20.3%	7.1%
FAM_8	16.2%	26.9%	31.3%	25.6%
FAM_9	46.6%	37.9%	13.9%	1.5%
FAM_10	20.5%	33.4%	29.9%	16.2%
FAM_11	22.0%	41.8%	22.7%	13.4%
FAM_12	20.0%	15.0%	22.5%	42.5%

N=581.

The value of Cronbach's alpha of this scale is .7157. For the item-intercorrelation, 12 out of 66 coefficients are below 0.1. Most of these coefficients occur between item four and other items. If we delete item 4 from the scale, the alpha's value is just raised to .7236. Therefore, we still keep this item. About the item-total correlation, all of them fall between .3378 and .6540 (Table 23).

Table 23: Item Intercorrelations and Correlations with the Total Score (Family Communication about Consumption)

Item	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	.3382	.1934	.2093	.2366	.1507	.3159	.1792
2		.0726	.2384	.1324	.1052	.2154	.1787
3			.0091	.1450	.1849	.1016	.1013
4				.0484	-.0010	.1702	.1287
5					.2231	.1987	.3021
6						.1710	.2653
7							.2212

Item	9	10	11	12	Total
1	.1702	.2414	.1427	.1963	.5525
2	.0898	.1960	.1369	.2112	.5044
3	.0743	.1548	.1187	.1423	.3861
4	.0648	.0402	.0255	.0208	.3378
5	.1891	.3458	.2265	.1637	.5470
6	.2153	.3651	.1047	.1620	.4888
7	.3296	.3278	.0763	.1662	.5422
8	.1762	.3935	.1293	.2250	.5643
9		.3772	.2095	.0614	.4596
10			.2468	.2348	.6540
11				.1237	.4203
12					.4847

4. Peer Communication about Consumption

This scale has six items which are used to measure the overt peer-children interactions concerning goods and services. The items have 4-point scale ranging from “very often” to “never”. The item response distribution is displayed in Table 24. In general, the pupils interact less frequently with their peers than their parents. They would often talk with their friends about buying things (item 2), and their friends would also often ask them for advice about buying things (item 4).

Table 24: Item Response Distribution of Peer Communication about Consumption

Item	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
PEER_1	7.7%	33.0%	31.0%	28.2%
PEER_2	12.7%	31.5%	28.1%	27.7%
PEER_3	6.5%	19.4%	28.7%	45.3%
PEER_4	9.8%	28.9%	30.6%	30.6%
PEER_5	6.2%	21.0%	31.0%	41.8%
PEER_6	11.4%	21.7%	28.7%	38.2%

N=581.

The Cronbach's alpha of this scale is .7793. All coefficients of item-intercorrelation are between 0.1 and 0.6, and all the item-total correlations are between .5366 and .7650 (Table 25). Therefore, it is confident to say that the scale has high reliability.

Table 25: Item Intercorrelations and Correlations with the Total Score (Peer Communication about Consumption)

Item	PEER_2	PEER_3	PEER_4	PEER_5	PEER_6	TOTAL
PEER_1	.5447	.2291	.5286	.3775	.4719	.7604
PEER_2		.2687	.4848	.4164	.4292	.7650
PEER_3			.2725	.2497	.2216	.5366
PEER_4				.3810	.4031	.7343
PEER_5					.2650	.6434
PEER_6						.6843

C. Hypotheses Testing

1. Sex

To assess the effect of sex on the intervening and dependent variables, t-tests were used. Table 26 illustrates how sex interacts with different variables. The difference between sexes regarding the interaction with family about consumption is little. In fact, t-test indicates that the difference does not have any statistical significance. As a result, Hypothesis 1 cannot be accepted .

However, when age becomes the control variable, it is discovered that older female children are more likely to interact with their peers than older male children, and such difference is significant (t-value=-2.07, p<0.05). For family communication about consumption, no such difference exists either in young children and older children (Table 27).

Table 26: Relationship Between Sex and Selected Intervening and Dependent Variables

Variables	Male	Female	t-value	Significance Level (One-tailed)
1. Peer Communication about Consumption	12.46	12.61	- 0.43	.332
2. Family Communication about Consumption	32.03	32.00	0.60	.474
3. Information Seeking from Peer	1.84	1.87	- 0.23	.409
4. Information Seeking from Parents	4.21	4.52	- 2.26*	.012
5. Product Evaluation by Peer	0.74	0.84	- 0.93	.178
6. Product Evaluation by Parents	2.27	2.60	- 2.06*	.02
7. Purchase Independently	1.98	1.76	1.54	.063
8. Purchase with Parents	3.27	3.59	- 2.15*	.016

Higher index scores indicate higher frequency of the behaviors being measured.

* Significant at least at .05 level.

Concerning the information seeking, it is found that female children are more likely to seek information from parents, and such relation is statistically significant ($t\text{-value}=-2.26$, $p<.012$). However, no significance is found between female children and information seeking from peers. Therefore, in Hypothesis 2, the suggestion that female children would seek more product information from peers is rejected. Even when age is controlled, no obvious difference is observed in the young and older children. For the notion that females are more likely to get information from parents, it can be accepted.

Table 27: Relationship Between Sex and Selected Intervening and Dependent Variables with Age as the Control Variable

Variables	Younger Children			Older Children		
	Male	Female	t-value	Male	Female	t-value
1. Peer Communication						
about Consumption	11.73	11.36	-.88	13.34	14.37	-2.07*
2. Family Communication						
about Consumption	32.03	32.03	.01	32.03	31.96	.09
3. Information Seeking						
from Peer	1.62	1.61	.05	2.10	2.24	-.62
4. Product Evaluation						
by Peer	0.79	0.84	-.34	0.68	0.83	-1.01
5. Purchase Independently	1.49	1.20	1.77*	2.57	2.56	.05

Higher index scores indicate higher frequency of the behaviors being measured.

* Significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

Similar to the information seeking, only product evaluation from parents is statistically significant ($t\text{-value} = -2.06$, $p < 0.02$), and no relationship is detected between female children and product evaluation from peers. Therefore, for Hypothesis 3, the first part is rejected, but the assumption that females would use more parents' preferences in evaluating products can be accepted. When age is controlled for the information seeking from peers, no difference is detected between the older and the younger children.

With reference to purchasing patterns, males do not have any difference from females in purchasing role structure. But among the younger children ($\text{age} \leq 10$), the males have a greater tendency to purchase products independently than females do (Table 27). For the females, they display a greater inclination to buy things with

their parents ($t\text{-value} = -2.15$, $p < .016$). Therefore, in Hypothesis 4, the first notion that females would purchase products more with peers is rejected, but they are more likely to buy things with parents can be accepted.

Besides testing the stated hypotheses, we also correlated sex with other variables (Table 28). From the table, we can observe that females hold more favorable attitudes toward TV ads than males ($t\text{-value} = -2.4$, $p < .009$). When making product evaluation, males would use more price and brand preferences than females. To other variables, no statistical differences can be found.

Table 28: Relationship Between Sex and Other Variables

Variables	Male	Female	t-value	Significance Level (One-tailed)
1. Saving	15.83	16.29	- 0.22	.416
2. TV Viewing Hours	4.13	3.97	0.91	.182
3. Motivation for TV ads Viewing	18.17	17.90	0.75	.228
4. Attitude Towards TV Ads	12.57	13.10	- 2.40*	.009
5. Information Seeking from TV Ads	1.46	1.25	1.55	.061
6. Information Seeking from Newspaper/Magazine	.97	.95	0.17	.434
7. Total Information Seeking Index	8.47	8.59	- 0.39	.349
8. Product Evaluation by Price	3.49	3.19	1.73*	.042
9. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	1.30	1.15	1.11	.134
10. Product Evaluation by Brand	1.73	1.18	4.09*	.000
11. Total Product Evaluation Index	9.52	8.96	1.57	.059

Higher index scores indicate higher frequency of the behaviors being measured.

* Significant at least at .05 level.

To address the question concerning the effect of socialization agents on the consumer behaviors of children, we analyze the relationship between sex and the dependent variables by level of communication with family, peers, and motivation for TV ads viewing (Table 29, 30, 31).

From Table 29, it is discovered that family communication about consumption can affect both sexes in the following area. First, more family interaction about consumption can increase the consumer behaviors related to parents of both sexes, such as product information seeking and product evaluation from parents and purchasing products with parents. In general, females are more affiliated with parents. If family communication about consumption gets more frequent, males will increase their association behaviors with parents much more than females. Second, more family interaction can enhance children's consumer decision-making process of both sexes. Male and female children could utilize more sources for product information and evaluations. Third, more family interaction can suppress children's TV viewing hours. However, both sexes still are more motivated to watch TV ads and develop more favorable attitude towards TV ads. Finally, more family communication about consumption can have different effect on sexes concerning the media use. Frequent communication with parents about consumption can make male children seek more product information from TV and newspaper/magazines and evaluate product by TV ads and brand name but female children would use less.

In Table 30, it is clear that more peer communication about consumption can increase consumer behaviors of both sexes except those related to parents. Similar to family interaction, more peer communication can also enhance both sexes about consumer decision-making process. Both sexes can learn to find more sources for product information and evaluation. However, more family communication would increase more consumer behaviors with parents while more peer communication would increase more consumer behaviors with peers. These two

socialization agents, family and peers, seem to pull the children into two different directions.

The findings from Table 31 reveal that more motivated TV ads viewing can generally increase the consumer behaviors of both sexes. Motivated to watch more TV ads not only increase the behaviors related to mass media but also increase those behaviors related to parents and peers except one - purchasing products with parents. At first glance, TV ads, as another socialization agent, does not compete with other two agents directly on influencing children's consumer behaviors.

Table 29: Relationship Between Sex and Dependent Variables by Level of Family Communication about Consumption

		Low			High		
		Male (N=172)	Female (N=137)	t-value	Male (N=148)	Female (N=124)	t-value
1.	Saving	17.55	16.03	.49	13.77	16.59	-1.04
2.	TV Viewing						
	Hours	4.38	4.22	.62	3.83	3.70	.62
3.	Motivation for						
	TV Ads						
	Viewing	17.48	17.66	-.38	18.96	18.15	1.46
4.	Attitude Towards						
	TV Ads	12.24	13.04	- 2.60*	12.95	13.16	- .69
5.	Information Seeking						
	from Peers	1.82	1.79	.16	1.86	1.96	- .50
6.	Information Seeking						
	from TV Ads	1.37	1.31	.36	1.56	1.19	1.88*
7.	Information Seeking						
	from Parents	3.92	4.17	- 1.20	4.53	4.91	-2.13*
8.	Information Seeking						
	from Newspaper						
	/Magazine	.85	1.01	- 1.05	1.10	.87	1.36
9.	Total Information						
	Seeking Index	7.97	8.28	-.76	9.05	8.93	.29
10.	Product Evaluation						
	by Price	3.20	2.99	.91	3.82	3.41	1.64*
11.	Product Evaluation						
	by TV Ads	1.28	1.19	.52	1.32	1.11	1.06
12.	Product Evaluation						
	by Peers	.77	.75	.11	.71	.93	-1.46
13.	Product Evaluation						
	by Brand	1.68	1.33	1.94*	1.78	1.02	3.84*
14.	Product Evaluation						
	by Parents	1.88	2.35	- 2.24*	2.72	2.87	- .64
15.	Total Product						
	Evaluation						
	Index	8.81	8.61	-.41	10.34	9.35	1.93*
16.	Purchase Independ-						
	ently	2.24	1.95	1.50	1.66	1.56	.56
17.	Purchase with						
	Parents	2.95	3.30	- 1.75*	3.64	3.91	-1.25

*t-values which are significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

Table 30: Relationship Between Sex and Dependent Variables by Level of Peer Communication about Consumption

		Low			High		
		Male (N=164)	Female (N=129)	t-value	Male (N=156)	Female (N=132)	t-value
1.	Saving	12.65	15.44	- 1.08	17.18	17.13	.63
2.	TV Viewing Hours	3.84	3.74	.39	4.43	4.18	.97
3.	Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	16.96	17.24	-.54	19.43	18.54	1.83*
4.	Attitude Towards TV Ads	12.37	13.02	- 2.00*	12.78	13.17	-1.32
5.	Information Seeking from Peers	1.27	1.31	-.21	2.43	2.42	.06
6.	Information Seeking from TV Ads	1.35	1.09	1.41	1.58	1.41	.87
7.	Information Seeking from Parents	4.29	4.67	- 1.96*	4.12	4.37	-1.28
8.	Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	.82	.80	.12	1.12	1.09	.18
9.	Total Information Seeking Index	7.73	7.87	-.37	9.25	9.29	- .08
10.	Product Evaluation by Price	3.48	3.05	1.75*	3.50	3.33	.71
11.	Product Evaluation by TV Ads	1.11	.93	1.05	1.49	1.37	.64
12.	Product Evaluation by Peers	.55	.57	-.15	.94	1.10	- .95
13.	Product Evaluation by Brand	1.48	.78	4.20*	1.99	1.58	2.05*
14.	Product Evaluation by Parents	2.34	2.81	- 2.07*	2.19	2.39	- .90
15.	Total Product Evaluation Index	8.95	8.13	1.73*	10.12	9.77	.67
16.	Purchase Independ- ently	1.54	1.18	2.05*	2.44	2.33	.53
17.	Purchase with Parents	3.71	4.02	- 1.48	2.80	3.17	-1.81*

*t-values which are significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

Table 31: Relationship Between Sex and Dependent Variables by Level of Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

	Low			High		
	Male (N=167)	Female (N=145)	t-value	Male (N=153)	Female (N=116)	t-value
1. Saving	15.55	14.83	.25	16.14	18.15	- .68
2. TV Viewing Hours	4.17	3.61	2.29*	4.08	4.41	-1.27
3. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	14.67	15.07	- 1.33	21.99	21.43	1.69*
4. Attitude Towards TV Ads	11.91	12.34	- 1.50	13.29	14.04	-2.41*
5. Information Seeking from Peers	1.76	1.67	.49	1.92	2.12	- .96
6. Information Seeking from TV Ads	1.10	.99	.67	1.85	1.57	1.28
7. Information Seeking from Parents	4.19	4.57	- 1.99*	4.22	4.46	-1.15
8. Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	.76	.88	-.85	1.19	1.03	.89
9. Total Information Seeking Index	7.81	8.12	-.82	9.18	9.17	.02
10. Product Evaluation by Price	3.44	3.21	.97	3.54	3.16	1.49
11. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.80	.87	-.47	1.84	1.51	1.54
12. Product Evaluation by Peers	.65	.73	-.59	.84	.97	- .84
13. Product Evaluation by Brand	1.50	1.03	2.64*	1.98	1.37	2.96*
14. Product Evaluation by Parents	2.22	2.57	- 1.54	2.31	2.64	-1.38
15. Total Product Evaluation Index	8.62	8.41	.45	10.50	9.64	1.54
16. Purchase Independ- ently	1.90	1.59	1.72*	2.05	1.97	.37
17. Purchase with Parents	3.37	3.70	- 1.64*	3.16	3.46	-1.34

*t-values which are significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

2. Age

To inquire into the interaction between age and other variables, Pearson's coefficient is used. Table 32 displays the correlation between age and the variables which are mentioned in the Hypothesis 5.

The results disclose that the older the children, they are more likely to seek product information from peers, less likely to seek information from parents, less likely to use parents' product preferences, more likely to save more pocket money, more likely to buy thing independently, and less likely to purchase products with parents.

Table 32: Correlations Between Age and the Selected Variables

Variables	Age	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. Total Product Evaluation Index	- .0421	.155
2. Total Information Seeking Index	.0311	.217
3. Information from Peer	.1571*	.000
4. Product Evaluation by Peer	- .0435	.148
5. Information from Parents	- .3073*	.000
6. Product Evaluation by Parents	- .1799 *	.000
7. Saving	.1388 *	.001
8. Purchase Independently	.4095 *	.000
9. Purchase with Parents	- .3795 *	.000

*Significant at least at .05 level

For those variables in Table 32 that have no relations regarding to age, we try to use sex as the control variable to see whether males and females would make a difference. Nevertheless, age still has no effect on total product evaluation, total information seeking, and product evaluation from peers in male and female group (Table 33).

Table 33: Correlations Between Age and the Selected Variables by Difference of Sex

Variables	Age			
	Male (N=320)	Significance		Significance Level (one-tailed)
		Level (one-tailed)	Female (N=261)	
1. Total Product Evaluation Index	-.0301	.296	-.0679	.137
2. Total Information Seeking Index	.0281	.308	.0378	.272
3. Product Evaluation by Peer	-.0632	.130	-.0181	.385

Besides the variables in Hypothesis 5, we correlate age with other variables (Table 34). The findings indicate that older children will watch more television every day. They would also like to seek product information from TV commercials though the relation is not strong. Moreover, they would read more newspaper and magazines to get more product information. Concerning product evaluation, older children are more likely to use brand preference but less likely to buy product based on the prices. Finally, older children have the tendency to interact more with their peers regarding the consumption matters.

Table 34: Correlations Between Age and Other Variables

Variables	Age	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. TV Viewing Hours	.2069*	.000
2. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	.0870*	.018
3. Attitude Towards TV Ads	.0269	.259
4. Information Seeking from TV Ads	.0949*	.011
5. Information Seeking from Newspaper/Magazines	.1510*	.000
6. Product Evaluation by Price	-.0715*	.043
7. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.0503	.113
8. Product Evaluation by Brand	.1758*	.000
9. Family Communication about Consumption	.0204	.312
10. Peer Communication about Consumption	.3234*	.000

* Significant at least at .05 level

From the findings in Table 32 and 34, we can conclude that as children grow older, their interaction with socialization agents is changing. When children become older, they will interact less with their parents. Therefore, they seek less product information from parents, evaluate product less by parents' preference, and buy things less with parents. In contrast, older children will interact more with peers and mass media. As a result, they are more likely to seek product information from peers, buy things independently, watch more TV and TV ads, seek information from TV ads and newspaper/magazine, and evaluate products by their brand names.

To see how age influences the consumption behaviors of children through the interaction with the socialization agents, we correlate age with the dependent variables by levels of family and peer communication with consumption and motivation for TV ads viewing (Table 35).

From the data, we can see that age is a good predictor of a number of behaviors with little influence from the socialization agents. Many relationships remain significant no matter how often children interact with the agents. Nevertheless, the socialization agents have exerted their influences in the following areas.

Less family communication about consumption appears to have relation with children's more information seeking from peers and TV ads, and more utilization of TV ads as production evaluation attribute. More family interaction seems to encourage the children to view television advertising more frequently as they grow older. Also, it seems that stronger family communication about consumption can buffer the impact of age influence. For example, the Pearson's coefficients between age and product evaluation by parents under high family communication is less. It indicates that family communication about consumption cannot stop the influence from age but can weaken its effect.

When communication with peer about consumption is lower, older children are less likely to use price and peer as product evaluation criteria. Also, older children will adopt fewer product evaluation criteria. When interaction is more frequent, older children will save more money, spend more time on watching TV, and seek more product information from newspaper and magazine. It is obvious that when peer communication about consumption gets more frequently, the older children will contact more mass media.

Table 35: Relationship Between Age and Dependent Variables by Levels of Socialization Agents

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption		Peer Communication about Consumption		Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	
	Low (N=309)	High (N=272)	Low (N=293)	High (N=288)	Low (N=312)	High (N=269)
1. Saving	.1349	.1344	N.S.	.1394	.1356	.1266
2. TV Viewing Hours	.1870	.2433	N.S.	.3076	.2011	.2097
3. Television Advertising Viewing	N.S.	.1062	N.S.	N.S.	.1100	N.S.
4. Attitude Towards TV Ads	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
5. Information Seeking from Peers	.2338	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.1905	.1055
6. Information Seeking from TV Ads	.1098	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.1130	N.S.
7. Information Seeking from Parents	-.3158	-.3161	-.2689	-.3380	-.3573	-.2462
8. Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	.1953	.1077	N.S.	.1676	.1880	.0996
9. Total Information Seeking Index	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
10. Product Evaluation by Price	N.S.	N.S.	-.1053	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
11. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.0971	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.1001	N.S.
12. Product Evaluation by Peers	N.S.	N.S.	-.1252	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
13. Product Evaluation by Brand	.2278	.1210	.1666	.1046	.2277	.1006
14. Product Evaluation by Parents	-.2468	-.1168	-.1819	-.1524	-.2230	-.1314
15. Total Product Evaluation Index	N.S.	N.S.	-.1046	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
16. Purchase Independently	.4830	.3297	.3700	.3583	.4265	.3840
17. Purchase with Parents	-.4696	-.2935	-.3374	-.3434	-.3956	-.3544

All entries are Pearson's coefficients significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

N.S.=Not Statistically Significant

About the TV ads, the following phenomenon is observed. When children are more motivated to view TV ads, age will be less strongly related to those consumption behaviors turning away from parents. In other words, the older the children, they will still get away from their parents. However, if they view more TV ads with purpose, such separation will be weakened.

3. Family

From Table 15, we can observe that on average, most of the children would like to buy things based on the price preference. As expected, family communication about consumption has positive relation with it (Table 36). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 can be accepted.

Concerning the saving behaviors, family communication about consumption does not have any relation with it. Such relation also does not exist when sex and age are kept as control variables. As a result, Hypothesis 7 should be rejected.

Table 36: Correlations Between Family Communication about Consumption and the Selected Variables

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. Product Evaluation by Price	.1322*	.001
2. Saving	- .0415	.162

* Significant at .001 level

Besides the above two hypotheses, we try to correlate family communication about consumption with other variables (Table 37). From the following table, we discover if children have communicated more with their parents about consumption, they will spend less time on watching TV. Moreover, they would hold more favorable attitude towards TV commercials though the relation is rather weak ($r = .0959$).

Concerning the information seeking and product evaluation, the more the children talk with their parents about consumption, the more likely they will seek product information and evaluation preferences from their parents. Also, such communication can enhance children's overall use of sources of product information and product evaluation preferences. Since family communication about consumption does not have any relations with other information sources and evaluation attributes, the main contribution to the overall use of sources of product information seeking and production evaluation is from the parents. Therefore, we can say that the strongest influence of family communication about consumption is to make children obtain product information and advice mainly from their parents.

Expectedly, more communication with parents also has effect on children's purchasing pattern. They are more likely to buy things with parents but less likely to purchase products independently. Finally, family communication about consumption has positive relation with peer communication regarding consumption.

Table 37: Correlations Between Family Communication about Consumption and Other Variables

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. TV Viewing Hours	-.1131*	.003
2. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	.1721*	.000
3. Attitude Towards TV Ads	.0959*	.010
4. Information Seeking from Peers	.0520	.105
5. Information Seeking from TV Ads	.0498	.115
6. Information Seeking from Parents	.2313*	.000
7. Information Seeking from Newspaper/Magazines	.0495	.117
8. Total Information Seeking Index	.1724*	.000
9. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.0392	.173
10. Product Evaluation by Peers	.0348	.201
11. Product Evaluation by Brand	.0000	.500
12. Product Evaluation by Parents	.2285*	.000
13. Total Product Evaluation Index	.1894*	.000
14. Purchase Independently	-.1787*	.000
15. Purchase with Parents	.1992*	.000
16. Peer Communication about Consumption	.2646*	.000

* Significant at least .05 level

4. Peer

It is often postulated that when children grow older, they will turn away from their parents and associate more with their peers. Such speculation has already been confirmed in Table 33. The findings in Table 38 further prove that the more communication with their peers, the children are more likely to seek their opinions regarding to the consumption affairs.

Table 38: Correlations Between Peer Communication about Consumption and the Selected Variables

Variables	Peer Communication about Consumption	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. Information Seeking from Peers	.4168*	.000
2. Product Evaluation by Peers	.2154*	.000
3. Purchase Independently	.3878*	.000

* Significant at .000 level

Since all entries in Table 38 are statistically significant, we could say that the greater their communication with peers about consumption, the children are more likely to seek information from them, to use product preferences from them, and to purchase products alone or with friends. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 can be totally accepted.

Further analysis is made between peer communication about consumption with other variables. The results are displayed in Table 39. It is obvious that peer

communication is positively related to most of the variables except product evaluation by price. There is a positive relation between TV viewing and peer communication about consumption. The more the children talk with their peers about consumption affairs, the more they are likely to have positive attitude towards TV commercials but the relation is very weak ($r = .0945$, $p = .011$). Peer communication is more strongly related to their seeking more information from TV ads and evaluating products by TV ads.

Besides the information from TV ads, the analysis also indicates that the more peer communication, the more likely the children seek information from newspaper/magazines, and less likely from parents. In overall use of information sources, the relation is in positive direction.

For product evaluation, peer communication about consumption is positively related to brand preferences. Such phenomenon is common among the children who often share the information which brand is more reliable and useful. Expectedly, peer communication is negatively related to the parents' product preference, but it is positively related to the overall use of product evaluations. Lastly, it is observed the more peer communication regarding consumption, the less likely the children would purchase products with their parents.

In sum, the strongest influence of peer communication about consumption is on children's association with peers. When peer communication about consumption is getting more frequently, children will seek more product information and advice from peers. Also, they prefer to buy things alone or with peers. Another important effect of peer communication is its relation to children's media use. It seems that more peer communication about consumption can encourage children to watch more TV and TV ads, seek more product information from TV ads and

newspaper/magazine, and use more preferences from TV ads and product brands. We cannot make a conclusion here that peers contribute to the children's greater utilization of mass media, but such phenomenon is worth to be studied later.

Table 39: Correlations Between Peer Communication about Consumption and Other Variables

Variables	Peer Communication about Consumption	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. TV Viewing Hours	.1319*	.001
2. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	.2873*	.000
3. Attitude Towards TV Ads	.0945*	.011
4. Saving	.1096*	.004
5. Information Seeking from TV Ads	.1461*	.000
6. Information Seeking from Parents	- .1304*	.001
7. Information Seeking from Newspaper/Magazines	.1820*	.000
8. Total Information Seeking Index	.2680*	.000
9. Product Evaluation by Price	.0100	.405
10. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.1967*	.000
11. Product Evaluation by Brand	.2869*	.000
12. Product Evaluation by Parents	- .0727*	.040
13. Total Product Evaluation Index	.2114*	.000
14. Purchase with Parents	- .3057*	.000

* Significant at least at .05 level

To examine how interpersonal communication about consumption affects the consumer socialization with the television advertising as a catalyst, we analyze the impact of family and peer communication about consumption on the dependent measures by levels of motivation for TV ads viewing (Table 40).

For family communication about consumption, its relation to some variables have changed when motivation for TV ads viewing is varying. If children are less motivated to watch TV ads, more family communication about consumption would lead to more product evaluation by price, peers, and total product evaluation preferences. In contrast, if children are motivated to watch more TV ads, more family communication is related to less saving and product evaluation by peers. In other words, children with more motivation to watch TV ads would tend to spend more money. Also, TV ads viewing can alter the relation between family communication about consumption and product evaluation by peers.

Concerning peer communication about consumption, its relations with some variables have also changed if television advertising sets in. When children are less motivated to watch TV ads, more peer interaction is related to more money saving, more information seeking from TV ads, less source of information from parents. Moreover, peer communication about consumption is no longer related to attitude towards TV ads and parents' preference if effects of motivation for TV ads viewing has been taken into account.

To examine Table 40 in greater detail, we can observe that family and peer communication about consumption are more strongly related to some variables when children are less motivated to watch TV ads. It shows that TV ads compete with the other two socialization agents. When children contact TV ads with stronger motivation, the effect of family and peer communication about consumption on children's consumer behaviors will diminish.

Table 40: Relationship Between Family and Peer Communication about Consumption and Dependent Variables by Levels of Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption		Peer Communication about Consumption	
	Motivation for TV Ads Viewing		Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	
	Low (N=312)	High (N=269)	Low (N=312)	High (N=269)
1. Saving	N.S.	-.1415	.1201	N.S.
2. TV Viewing Hours	N.S.	-.1689	.1470	N.S.
3. Attitude Towards TV Ads	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
4. Information Seeking from Peers	N.S.	N.S.	.4107	.4079
5. Information Seeking from TV Ads	N.S.	N.S.	.1582	N.S.
6. Information Seeking from Parents	.2422	.2260	-.1644	N.S.
7. Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	N.S.	N.S.	.1307	.1969
8. Total Information Seeking Index	.1741	.1362	.2428	.2412
9. Product Evaluation by Price	.1683	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
10. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	N.S.	N.S.	.2051	.1023
11. Product Evaluation by Peers	.1358	-.1065	.2683	.1327
12. Product Evaluation by Brand	N.S.	N.S.	.3080	.2240
13. Product Evaluation by Parents	.2891	.1490	N.S.	N.S.
14. Total Product Evaluation Index	.2529	N.S.	.2137	.1454
15. Purchase Independ- ently	-.2260	-.1511	.3369	.4287
16. Purchase with Parents	.2126	.2069	-.2850	-.3152

All entries are Pearson's coefficients significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

N.S.=Not Statistically Significant

5. TV Commercials

In the questionnaire, we collected two measures concerning television viewing. One is TV viewing hours which measures how many hours the respondents watch TV every day. The other is a constructed index of motivation for TV ads viewing based on eight questions. It measures the respondents' motives of viewing TV commercials for the gathering of information for products and life styles. The correlation between these two variables in this study is .1157 ($p < .003$). Throughout this study, motivation for TV ads viewing is adopted to be the measure of children's motivated exposure to TV ads.

In Table 41, motivation for TV ads viewing is positively correlated with all the variables. The stronger motivation for TV ads viewing is moderately related to more information seeking from TV ads and using more TV ads preference. Such findings support Hypothesis 9.

Table 41: Correlations Between Motivation for TV Ads Viewing and the Selected Variables

Variables	Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. TV Viewing Hours	.1157*	.003
2. Attitude Towards TV Commercials	.3416*	.000
3. Information Seeking From TV Ads	.2499*	.000
4. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.3168*	.000
5. Family Communication about Consumption	.1721*	.000
6. Peer Communication about Consumption	.2873*	.000

* Significant at least at .01 level

The results further support that the more children view TV ads for a purpose, the more favorable attitude they would develop towards them ($r=.3416$, $p<.000$). Therefore, Hypothesis 10 can be endorsed. For Hypothesis 11, Table 33 clearly shows that no relation exists between age and attitude towards TV ads ($r=.0269$, $p<.259$). Such hypothesis cannot be accepted. For Hypothesis 12, the results indicate that motivation for TV ads viewing is related to family communication and peer communication about consumption. Table 42 displays the correlation matrix among the three socialization agents. They all have significant relations to each other.

Table 42: Correlation Matrix Among the Three Socialization Agents

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption	Peer Communication about Consumption
1. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	.1721*	.2873*
2. Family Communication about Consumption		.2646*
3. Peer Communication about Consumption		

*Significant at .000 level

Motivation for TV ads viewing is further correlated with other variables. The results are displayed in Table 43. The findings reflect that the more they watch TV ads for a reason, the children tend to seek information from peers and paper media. Also, the total information seeking index is also positively correlated with motivation for TV ads viewing.

Table 43: Correlations Between Motivation for TV Ads Viewing and Other Variables

Variables	Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	Significance Level (one-tailed)
1. Saving	.0380	.183
2. Information Seeking from Friends	.1553*	.000
3. Information Seeking from Parents	-.0154	.356
4. Information Seeking from Newspaper/Magazines	.1590*	.000
5. Total Information Seeking Index	.2382*	.000
6. Product Evaluation by Price	-.0114	.392
7. Product Evaluation by Friends	.1043*	.006
8. Product Evaluation by Brand	.1974*	.000
9. Product Evaluation by Parents	-.0039	.463
10. Total Product Evaluation Index	.2136*	.000
11. Purchase Independently	.0883*	.017
12. Purchase with Parents	-.0810*	.026

* Significant at least at .05 level

For product evaluation, children would tend to evaluate product by brand and peers if they are more motivated to watch TV ads purposefully. Furthermore, the overall product evaluation index is also related to TV ads viewing. Finally, those children who watch more TV ads with reasons, they tend to purchase product alone or with friends, and they do not prefer to buy with their parents.

It is apparent that TV ads viewing is correlated with those cognitions and behaviors in relation to TV. Therefore, if children watch TV ads more purposefully, they are more likely to watch more TV, seek more information and product preference from TV ads. Another association of TV ads viewing is it can make children associate more with peers. Such association is even stronger than the association with parents.

To study whether interpersonal communication about consumption as mediators of television advertising effect, we analyze the influence of television advertising by level of communication with peers and families (Table 44).

Family communication about consumption can mediate the effects of TV ads a little bit. It can alter the product evaluation by parents and peers, and children's purchasing pattern. In low family communication, children who are motivated to watch more TV ads are likely to use more peers' preference for product evaluation. When communication is getting higher, such relation vanishes. In general, in a state of low family communication about consumption, motivation for TV ads viewing is more strongly related to variables concerning more media use. When family interaction becomes higher, those relations are weakened slightly. An exception is the product evaluation by TV ads. It seems that more family communication about consumption can strengthen children's tendency to use product preference by TV ads.

Table 44: Relationship Between Motivation for TV Ads Viewing and Dependent Variables by Levels of Interpersonal Communication about Consumption

Variables	Family Communication about Consumption		Peer Communication about Consumption	
	Low (N=309)	High (N=272)	Low (N=293)	High (N=288)
1. Saving	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
2. TV Viewing Hours	.1406	.1249	.1473	N.S.
3. Attitude Towards TV Ads	.3322	.3399	.3800	.2866
4. Information Seeking from Peers	.1754	.1299	.1392	N.S.
5. Information Seeking from TV Ads	.2557	.2444	.2904	.1834
6. Information Seeking from Parents	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
7. Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	.1881	.1252	.1426	.1369
8. Total Information Seeking Index	.2710	.1815	.2238	.1838
9. Product Evaluation by Price	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
10. Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.2811	.3572	.3456	.2531
11. Product Evaluation by Peers	.2165	N.S.	.1524	N.S.
12. Product Evaluation by Brand	.1508	.2517	.1428	.1804
13. Product Evaluation by Parents	N.S.	-.1069	N.S.	N.S.
14. Total Product Evaluation Index	.2553	.1439	.2053	.1664
15. Purchase Independ- ently	N.S.	.1456	N.S.	N.S.
16. Purchase with Parents	N.S.	-.1200	N.S.	N.S.

All entries are Pearson's coefficients significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

N.S.=Not Statistically Significant

When peer communication about consumption gets more frequent, motivated TV ads viewing is no longer related to information seeking and product evaluation from peers. Moreover, the introduction of peer communication about consumption makes the original relationship between motivation for TV ads viewing and purchasing pattern disappear. Similar to the trend of family communication about consumption, we can observe that motivation for TV ads viewing is more strongly related to variables concerning mass media when peer communication about consumption is low. In other words, when children interact less with their peers, they will turn to use and seek more information from the mass media. However, when interaction with peers becomes more frequent, peers might play a more prominent role as information- and advice-givers.

Chapter 6: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Overview

This research on consumer socialization is governed by two models of human learning: the social learning model and the cognitive learning model. Social learning model focuses on how different socialization agents transmit norms, attitudes, motivations, and behaviors to the learners. Learning takes place when the learners interact with different socialization agents. These learnings may be affected by modeling, reinforcement, and social interaction. Cognitive learning model perceives learning as a cognitive psychological process of adjustment to one's environment. It explains that formation of cognitions and behaviors occurred on the basis of stages indexed by ages. With the help of these two models, we will examine how sex, age, and socialization agents, with emphasis on TV ads, exert their influences on the consumer behaviors of children in Hong Kong .

B. Effects of Social Structural Variable

In this study, the social structural variable, sex, is examined in relation to its effect on children's consumer behaviors. Concerning their relationships with different socialization agents, males and females in general are not different in their communications with family and peers about consumption. However, older female children seem to discuss consumption affairs more with their peers than males do. It is understandable that females enter into puberty a little earlier than males, and this period is characterized by children turning away from families. Therefore, older female children or early female adolescents would turn to associate more with their peers.

With respect to hours of TV viewing, males and females do not differ from each other greatly. Though females watch TV less than males, the findings show that females hold more favorable attitude towards TV ads than males especially when the frequency of (i) family communication about consumption is low, (ii) peer communication about consumption is low, and (iii) motivation for TV ads viewing is high. One of the possible reasons is that female children acquire less critical attitude towards TV ads than males. Such difference may not be caused by predispositional difference, but the real cause deserves further investigation.

In view of their media use, the differences between sexes are not statistically significant. Males and females do not have great difference in using TV ads and newspaper/magazine to seek product information. One exception is the emphasis by males using brand as the product evaluation criterion. Such difference cannot be mediated by any socialization agents. As mentioned in chapter five, identification of brand name is a result of media exposure. It reflects that male children are more susceptible to the influence of advertisements which intend to establish their product's brand name among the audience.

When the socialization agents set in, children of different sex will change their consumer behaviors in different extent. With more discussion of consumption with parents, male children will increase their consumer behaviors with parents much more than females. Also, male children will develop more abilities to make use of more sources for seeking product information and evaluation. Moreover, when family communication about consumption increases, males will increase their media use behaviors while females do not demonstrate such tendency. It is obvious that more discussion with parents about consumption can have bigger impact on male children. Females can also develop their consumer behaviors but the extent is not as large as males.

Peers, as agents of influence, also play roles in mediating the effect of sex on children's consumer behaviors. It is evident when children discuss consumption affairs more with their peers, both sexes (i) will watch more TV and TV ads, (ii) will increase more behaviors concerning media use, (iii) will carry out more consumption behaviors with peers, and (iv) will associate less with their parents. Unlike the family, the direction of peers' influence on both sexes are somewhat similar. Both males and females will increase their consumption behaviors to an equal extent. A point is clear that both family and peer interaction about consumption can enhance children's consumer behaviors, but more family discussion will make children carry out more consumption behaviors with parents while more peer communication will turn children to peers and away from parents.

From the theory by Lynn (1959) and Solomon (1963), we speculated that female children interact more often with peers than male children do so that females can feel more certain of their competence and achievement for future roles. The findings in this study does not support this hypothesis. I think that it is the cultural difference contributing to the difference. In the Western society, family tries to let the children learn to be independent as early as possible. The detachment from the family starts earlier, and the female children would experience the stresses described by Lynn and Solomon. However, in Hong Kong, families do not push their children to be independent so early. Female children have strong attachment with their parents emotionally, psychologically and socially. Such attachment even extends to mid-adolescent period and begins to decline in their mid- or late adolescent periods. It is the reason why Hong Kong female children interact more with their parents than their peers compared with the same age group in Western societies.

TV ads also has its influence in mediating the effect of sex on children's consumer behaviors. More motivated TV ads viewing can reinforce female's positive attitudes towards TV ads. Also, watching more TV ads can reduce the sex difference in (i) information seeking from parents, (ii) purchasing goods independently and with parents. If we alter Table 31 by comparing the same sex under different motivation of TV ads viewing, we discover that many consumer behaviors have substantial increase of both sexes under stronger motivation of TV ads viewing (Table 45). The use of media to collect product information and evaluation are moving up for both sexes. In general, the magnitude of increase of male is a little bit greater than female. As a result, we can say that the consumer behaviors of male is more easily influenced by the TV ads viewing.

Table 45: Relationship Within Sex and Dependent Variables by Level of Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

		Male			Female		
		TV Ads Low (N=167)	TV Ads High (N=153)	t-value	TV Ads Low (N=145)	TV Ads High (N=116)	t-value
1.	Saving	15.55	16.14	-.20	14.83	18.15	-1.17
2.	TV Viewing Hours	4.17	4.08	.36	3.61	4.41	-3.01*
3.	Motivation for TV Ads Viewing	14.67	21.99	-23.61*	15.07	21.43	-19.97*
4.	Attitude Towards TV Ads	11.91	13.29	-4.73*	12.34	14.04	-5.65*
5.	Information Seeking from Peers	1.76	1.92	-.85	1.67	2.12	-2.22*
6.	Information Seeking from TV Ads	1.10	1.85	-3.96*	.99	1.57	-3.01*
7.	Information Seeking from Parents	4.19	4.22	-.16	4.57	4.46	.56
8.	Information Seeking from Newspaper /Magazine	.76	1.19	-2.76*	.88	1.03	-.83
9.	Total Information Seeking Index	7.81	9.18	-3.21*	8.12	9.17	-2.51*
10.	Product Evaluation by Price	3.44	3.54	-.40	3.21	3.16	.23
11.	Product Evaluation by TV Ads	.80	1.84	-5.96*	.87	1.51	-3.46*
12.	Product Evaluation by Peers	.65	.84	-1.49	.73	.97	-1.44
13.	Product Evaluation by Brand	1.50	1.98	-2.49*	1.03	1.37	-1.85*
14.	Product Evaluation by Parents	2.22	2.31	-.42	2.57	2.64	-.30
15.	Total Product Evaluation Index	8.62	10.50	-3.77*	8.41	9.64	-2.44*
16.	Purchase Independ- ently	1.90	2.05	-.80	1.59	1.97	-1.80*
17.	Purchase with Parents	3.37	3.16	1.05	3.70	3.46	1.07

*t-values which are significant at least at .05 level (one-tailed).

C. Effects of Age

Age is a significant index of cognitive learning. It is a good predictor of a wide variety of consumer behaviors. It also confirms that the cognitive learning model can help us explain the development and change of behaviors when children are gradually growing up. When children become older, they have acquired the cognitive ability to cope with the daily activities, and they discuss more with their peers about consumption affairs. They also watch more TV and have more motivation to view more TV commercials. However, their attitude towards TV ads is relatively steady across ages.

The cognitive learning model describes that children will seek information more from different sources when maturation takes place. In this study, no evidence indicates that such proposition is true. The results do indicate, however, that when children are young, they mainly seek product information from parents. Also, they tend to seek out mass media more often to gather more product information. The older the children, the more they will use different media, such as TV ads, newspaper, and magazine to seek product information. As their sources of product information change with children's maturation, that may be the reason why the total product information seeking index does not have significant change across ages.

When evaluating products, it seems that older children become more sensitive to brand name and less influenced by prices and parents' preference. Mentioned previously, we speculate that brand identification is a result of media exposure. Since older children watch more TV and TV ads, they are exposed to more TV commercials. As a result, they may acquire more information of brand names for different products. Therefore, they may develop more cognitive ability to use brand name as a product evaluation attribute.

It is hypothesized that older children will use more attributes to evaluate a product. However, the findings in this study does not support this speculation. A study by Moschis and Moore (1979) had similar result. They explained that older children might be developing efficiency in shopping using brand name as a summary of a larger number of product attributes, such as price, performance, and warranty. Therefore, the number of product evaluation criteria being used does not make a big difference across different age groups. The explanation by Moschis and Moore further confirms that TV ads is a very important agent to develop children's acquisition of products' brand names.

Concerning the mediating effect of socialization agents, the three agents can exert their influences in different areas. More discussion about consumption within family can buffer the impact of age which makes children resume more consuming behaviors with parents. In regard to the peers, more frequent interaction with them will bring children using more media to collect product information. Similar to family, TV ads can weaken the effect of age on children's consuming behaviors. More TV ads viewing seems to increase the consuming behaviors with parents and decrease those behaviors with peers. Perhaps TV ads viewing takes place at home. Children watching more TV ads mean that they will stay at home more. They may talk with their parents more about consumption affairs, and in return, they discuss less with their peers.

D. Effects of Socialization Agents

1. Media Influence

Television, as an agent of socialization, has effects on children's consumer behaviors. First, children view more TV ads with purpose would develop more

positive attitude towards them. Peer and family communication about consumption cannot alter this relationship. Second, motivation for TV ads viewing is correlated with children's communication with their peers and family regarding consumption. It shows that the relation among the three socialization agents is reciprocal and dynamic. After viewing TV commercials, children would talk about what they saw with their parents and peers. As discussed previously, more communication regarding consumption would enhance children's utilization of sources of information seeking and product evaluation.

Third, regarding the product information seeking, stronger motivation of TV ads viewing is correlated with more frequent use of information from peers, TV ads themselves, and newspaper or magazines. Also, stronger motivation of TV ads viewing would help the children increase their total use of product information seeking from various sources.

Fourth, about product evaluation, children who are motivated to view more TV ads tend to consider advice and preferences from their friends, the brand, and TV ads themselves. Particularly, the relationship between TV ads viewing and brand preference is very strong. It can be understood that most of the companies promote their products with emphasis on the images. We can speculate that children who are motivated to view more TV ads would develop the brand knowledge. A study by Moschis and Moore (1978) confirmed that children's awareness of brands and products may increase as they are exposed to a greater number of TV commercials.

Finally, concerning the purchasing pattern, children who are more motivated to view TV ads seem to prefer buying things alone and not with their parents. Such relation only happens when the frequency of family communication about consumption is high. More motivated TV ads viewing appears not to relate

with the saving motives.

2. Family Influence Interacting With Media Influence

Family has long been regarded the most important unit of socialization. It conveys values, norms, traditions, and knowledge to next generation. In this study, the findings show that in general, children mainly seek product information from their parents. However, if taking the sex and age into consideration, we discover that some changes have taken place. For example, older children turn away from their parents and most likely seek information from their peers and mass media. It may indicate that the functions of family are replaced by other systems in the society as children grow.

More family communication about consumption is associated with various consumption behaviors and attitudes. First, children watch less TV but they have more tendency to view TV commercials. Also, they would have more favorable attitude towards TV ads. If we take out the question six ("My parents and I talk about things we see or hear advertised") from the family communication about consumption scale and correlate it with television variables, we discover that the more parents discuss with their children about advertisements, the more favorable attitude children have towards the TV ads and the more often they watch TV ads with purposes.

The introduction of level of motivation for TV ads viewing alters the above relations a little bit. Children motivated to watch more TV ads seems not to use price as an criterion for product evaluation, and they do not use more preferences for product evaluation. Perhaps, for children who view TV ads less frequently, family could pass some consumer knowledge to them, such as the price evaluation.

However, when they view more TV ads with reasons, their knowledge about products are increased. Children might turn to use TV ads or other attributes to evaluate products. As a result, the distinctive position of price evaluation disappears, and the relations between family communication about consumption and total product evaluation index also does not exist. Generally speaking, the effect of family on children's consumption behaviors will be stronger when motivation for TV ads viewing is low. It clearly indicates that the two socialization agents, TV and family, have different effects on the dependent measures.

Family communication about consumption seems not to have any relations with saving behaviors. However, if the children watch more TV commercials with purposes, they would save less money. We cannot make a quick conclusion that more TV ads viewing leads to the generation of materialistic desire and more consumption. More investigations and studies are necessary to prove the existence of such effect.

3. Peer Influence Interacting With Media Influence

Peers seem to be very influential in consumer socialization. Peer communication correlates with almost all the variables except price evaluation. Peer communication about consumption has positive relations with family communication about consumption and TV viewing. Moreover, interaction with peers about consumption also has relation with children's tendency to view more TV commercials. As a chain reaction takes place, peer communication about consumption is also related to favorable attitude of children towards TV ads.

An interesting question arises here: why family communication about consumption has significant relation with peer communication since they seem to have effect on different dimensions? More family communication leads to more

product information seeking and evaluation from parents, but peer communication is related to more production seeking and evaluation from peers. Perhaps we can speculate that after children have learnt the attitudes, cognitions, and consumer skills from their parents, they would like to share with their peers what they have learnt at home. Such trend increase as children grow older. We can observe that the Pearson's correlation between family and peer communication will drop from .3642 of the younger children (age ≤ 10) to .1621 of the older children (age ≥ 11). Since the family communication about consumption remains nearly constant between the younger and older children, it indicates that peer communication regarding consumption among the older children has a significant increase.

Expectedly, more communication with peers about consumption is associated with children seeking more product information from their friends, but it is also associated with their seeking more product information from TV ads and paper media. In fact, there is also an increase of total product information seeking index corresponding to the increase of peer communication about consumption.

In the stage of product information seeking, motivation for TV ads viewing has moderated the effect of peer communication about consumption with information seeking from TV ads and parents. When children are more motivated to watch TV ads, more peer communication regarding consumption is no longer related to more source of information from TV ads and parents.

For product evaluation, besides the price, children use more TV ads, brand and peer preferences. Such relations continue regardless the frequency of TV as viewing. However, stronger motivation of TV ads viewing seems to reduce the magnitude of relationships. In other words, children motivated to view more TV ads tend to use less TV ads, brand, and peers as the product preferences.

As expected, children communicate more with their peers would tend to buy things alone or with peers. Such relations can be strengthened if children watch more TV ads. It seems that more TV ads viewing with purposes can induce children to perform more independent purchasing behaviors. Interestingly, it is found that they will in turn spend more their pocket money. By comparing the expenses of the pocket money between the following two groups, children who are less motivated to view TV ads spend an average of 15.5 dollars a week, but children who are motivated to view TV ads spend about 19.9 dollars. It is possible that more TV ads viewing with purposes can arouse more materialistic desire, and children will perform more acts of product purchasing.

4. Interaction Effects Among The Three Socialization Agents

With respect to the interaction among the three socialization agents, family and peer communication have roles to moderate the effects of TV ads on children's consumer behaviors. When family communication about consumption is kept in high level, the more motivated children watch TV ads, the less likely they (i) use peers' product preference, (ii) use parents' preference, (iii) purchase goods with parents, and (iv) the more likely they buy independently. It can be understood that more family interaction about consumption is related to children's less use of peers' preference for product evaluation. However, more family communication also discourages the use of parents' preference for product evaluation. It seems that more family communication can contribute to the development of independent consumption behaviors.

When peer communication about consumption is getting more frequent, several significant relationships disappeared. Motivation for TV ads viewing is no

longer related to information seeking and product evaluation from peers. It seems that more peer communication can enable children to seek more sources of information and use more product evaluation criteria. Therefore, peer communication neutralizes the former established relationship. The original relationship between motivation for TV ads viewing and purchasing pattern do not exist when peer communication about consumption has set in. Since peer communication is strongly related to purchasing pattern, its introduction overwhelms the relations between motivation for TV ads viewing and purchasing pattern and make those relations become insignificant statistically.

E. Implications

The findings in this study can help us understand more how different socialization agents interact with each other and moderate the effect of sex and age on children's consumption behaviors. Moreover, the results of this research also give us some insight in the following areas.

1. Marketing

For people working in children product business, this study has shed some light on how to develop their marketing strategy. In general, children mainly seek product information from parents and evaluate the product by parents' preference. Therefore, marketing staff can direct their product promotion to parents. Also, more motivation for TV ads viewing is associated with brand preference. Marketing people can make use of the TV ads to establish their product image not only among children but also their parents. This can make sure under any circumstances that product can be picked up by parents as well as their children.

Besides the above general condition, the marketing strategy should vary according to the type of products, sex, and age. For cheaper goods, besides their parents, children would seek more information from peers and TV ads. Therefore, the promotion of cheaper products can aim at children directly. For valuable products except toys, parents' influence is overwhelming. Promotion should aim at making children and their parents in favor of the product simultaneously.

Both sexes have some basic differences in the consumer decision-making process, marketing staff should take note of that. Female children would prefer to seek information from their parents and evaluate the product by parents' preference; therefore, promotion of female children product should be directed to their parents. For older female children, advertising could directly aim at them because they would discuss consumption affairs among themselves more often than the boys in the same age group. Male children are relatively sensitive to prices and the brand. Therefore, promotion of male product could be achieved by price reduction. In the meantime, the product brand should be regularly promoted in order to set up a good image among the male children. Moreover, unlike the girls, boys would tend to buy things alone or with friends. As a result, the product promotion could aim at them directly.

For older children, besides television, newspaper or magazines could be another effective medium. Since children interact with their parents less and turn to seek information from the electronic and paper media when they become older, marketing staff can promote sale of their products in these media. In Western country, age is found to correlate strongly with declining positive attitude towards TV ads. However, we cannot confirm this finding in this study. Nevertheless, marketing staff can make use of advertising which can arouse more communication among peers. It is because more peer communication regarding consumption can lead to more product information seeking and evaluation from peers.

2. Consumer Education

On average, children spend 4.1 hours on watching television everyday. Since there are about twelve-minutes TV commercials in an one-hour program and each commercial lasts for thirty minutes, they will see about a hundred TV commercials in a day. As the findings show that the more children view TV ads, they will develop more favorable attitude towards them. Moreover, the children would tend to seek information and make product evaluation from TV ads. We all know that TV ads would have some exaggeration. Therefore, proper consumer education can help children develop a more realistic and critical attitude towards the TV ads.

Consumer education can be implemented for the children and their families. School is also an important socialization agent. However, no consumer courses are incorporated in the syllabus of school in Hong Kong. In fact, the content of consumer education in primary school can include the following topics:

- (1) simple analysis of advertisements in TV or paper media;
- (2) how to utilize more product information seeking;
- (3) how to make a rational buying decision;
- (4) some basic ideas of consumer legal rights;
- (5) how to make budgeting and manage their pocket money.

In this study, it is discovered that only 24 per cent of respondents' parents would often or very often to discuss with their children about products they see or hear advertised. Perhaps parents are not aware of the importance of their roles on consumer education, or they are not equipped with the knowledge to talk with their children about consumer affairs. In fact, consumer education is very inadequate in Hong Kong. The Consumer Council was established in 1974. Its main functions are

to collect, receive, and disseminate information concerning goods and services. Through mass media and publications, it protects and promotes the interests of consumers. The focus of the Council is rather products specific, but less emphasis is put on the community education. For families, parents may have abundant product knowledge, but they do not have any ideas on how to raise their children's consumption awareness. In fact, some non-government organizations, such as the social service centers, may take up this role to teach parents how to educate their children on the topics listed in previous paragraph.

3. Public Policy

In this study, it is confirmed that there is a positive relation between motivation for TV ads viewing and positive attitude towards it. Also, more motivation for TV ads viewing is positively related to more product information seeking and evaluation from it. Therefore, some restrictions on the content of TV ads is necessary. Although Broadcasting Authority has laid down a set of rules governing the making of advertisements directed to the children, most of the children do not watch TV during the children time. Instead, most of them watch TV during the prime-time in the evening (SRG Research Service Limited, 1996). In other words, they can watch a lot of adult advertisements. Since the standards of TV ads for adults are relatively lenient, will such advertisements constitute any threats to the children? Is it necessary to make the standards of adult advertisements close to the children so that the possible harms can be minimized?

Moschis (1978a) discovered that children viewing more TV ads will develop more materialistic attitude. This attitude reflects an orientation which emphasize possession and money for personal happiness and social progress. Children view more TV ads will tend to emphasize the emotional aspect of the

products rather than the rational components. They do not think about the functions of the products; instead, they would just think whether that product can convey a good impression to others. In fact, in this study, the findings confirm that more TV ads viewing is associated with more product evaluation by brand preference. If such undesirable effect exists, for the policy makers, could they do something to prevent it? Or do the policy makers have the rights to interfere the advertisement business so deep and extensive? These controversial issues remain topics for public to look into in the future.

Discussion of TV ads for children is rare in Hong Kong. We do not have any civic groups like Action for Children's Television (ACT) in the United States here. But only relying on the policy makers or statutory authority to monitor the TV ads is impractical. More local civic groups are expected to set up to keep a close watch of the regulation of TV ads.

4. Socialization Theory

In this study, the findings reveal more the relationship among the variables in the consumer socialization model. Age, the life cycle variable, is rather a good predictor of children's consumer behaviors. As the cognitive learning model states, the children would acquire more attitudes, knowledge, and skills as the children grow older. In this study, it is clear that the socialization agents have little mediating effect with age on the dependent measures. Though the effect is minimal, the socialization agents still play some roles. For example, more family communication about consumption enables children not to seek product information from TV ads more frequently.

Sex, as a social structural variable, has its own effect directly on children's consumer behaviors. There is a striking evidence that male children use price for their product evaluation more often than females do. It could be a result of learning, but this relation exists no matter how much interaction sex has with the socialization agents. During the process of consumer socialization, the different agents can have mediating effect with sex on the dependent measures. For example, female children have more positive attitudes towards TV ads than males do. However, with more family and peer communication about consumption, such difference cannot be found.

The three socialization agents have effect on the dependent measures directly, but they also interact among themselves. For example, family communication is related to product evaluation by price. However, such relation does not exist when children watch TV ads with stronger motivation. Another example is peer communication is related to money saving. Similarly, this relation is not found when children are motivated to watch TV ads. Based on these findings, we can regard the conceptual model of consumer socialization as a reflection of how children learn consumer behaviors through interaction with different socialization agents.

To further validate the socialization theory, the following improvements can be made. First, in this study, we only get the self-reported responses from the children. Such responses may not reflect the real picture. If we can get the feedback from their parents, a more accurate agent-learner relationship can be obtained. This information can help assess more accurately how children interact with their parents.

Second, the influence of socialization agents cannot be fully studied. We only use family and peer communication about consumption and motivation for TV ads viewing as the representation of children's social interaction with agents of influence. However, learning process can be classified into three categories: modeling,

reinforcement, and social interaction. The former two has been totally disregarded in this study. The main obstacle in collecting these data is the methodology. Field observation is an appropriate way, but we cannot afford time and manpower to do it. In fact, several in-depth interviews can supplement the information in this regard.

Finally, in this study, we only select several consumer behaviors as dependent variables. In fact, consumer socialization may consist of a lot of attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors that worth investigation. For example, will TV ads viewing relate to brand loyalty? Will more TV viewing generate more materialistic desires? Which socialization agents, under what circumstances, are more effective to consumer learning? Are there any stages involved in consumer learning? Those studies would have implications for children consumer education and public policy.

Appendix I: Television Code of Practice on Advertising Standards

ADVERTISING AND CHILDREN

Guide to Standards

1. The Viewing Child

No product or service may be advertised and no method of advertising may be used, in association with a program intended for children or which large numbers of children are likely to see, which might result in harm to them physically, mentally or morally, and no method of advertising may be employed which takes advantage of the natural credulity and sense of loyalty of children.

In particular:

- (a) No advertisement which encourages children to enter strange places or to converse with strangers in an effort to collect coupons, wrappers, labels, etc., is allowed. The details of any collecting scheme must be submitted for investigation to ensure that the scheme contains no element of danger to children;
- (b) No advertisement for a commercial product or service is allowed if it contains any appeal to children which suggests in any way that unless the children themselves buy or encourage other people to buy the product or service they will be failing in some duty or lacking in loyalty towards some person or organization whether that person or organization is the one making the appeal or not;
- (c) No advertisement is allowed which leads children to believe that if they do not own the product advertised they will be inferior in some way to other children or that they are liable to be held in contempt or ridicule for not owning it;
- (d) No advertisement dealing with the activities of a club is allowed without the submission of satisfactory evidence that the club is carefully supervised in the matter of the behavior of the children and the company they keep and that there is no suggestion of the club being a secret society;
- (e) While it is recognized that children are not the direct purchaser of many products

over which they are naturally allowed to exercise preference, care should be taken that they are not encouraged to make themselves a nuisance to other people in the interests of any particular product or service. In an advertisement offering a free gift, a premium or a competition for children, the main emphasis of the advertisement must be on the product with which the offer is associated;

- (f) If there is to be a reference to a competition for children in an advertisement, the published rules must be submitted for approval before the advertisement can be accepted. The value of prizes and the chances of winning one must not be exaggerated;
- (g) To help in the fair portrayal of free gifts for children, an advertisement should, where necessary, make it easy to see the true size of a gift by showing it in relation to some common object against which its scale can be judged.

2. The Child in Advertisements

The appearance of children in advertisements is subject to the following conditions:

(a) Contributions to Safety

Any situations in which children are to be seen in television advertisements should be carefully considered from the point of view of safety.

In particular:

- (i) children should not appear to be unattended in street scenes unless they are obviously old enough to be responsible for their own safety; should not be seen playing in the road unless it is clearly shown to be a play-street or other safe area; should not be shown stepping carelessly off the pavement or crossing the road without due care; in busy street scenes should be seen to use zebra crossings in crossing the road; and should be otherwise seen in general as pedestrians or cyclists, to behave in accordance with the Highway Code;
- (ii) children should not be seen leaning dangerously out of windows or over bridges, or climbing dangerous cliffs;
- (iii) small children should not be shown climbing up to high shelves or reaching

up to take things from a table above their heads;

- (iv) medicines, disinfectants, antiseptics and caustic substances must not be shown within reach of children without close parental supervision, nor should children be shown using these products in any way;
- (v) children must not be shown using matches or any gas, paraffin, petrol, mechanical or mains-powered appliance which could lead to their suffering burns, electrical shock or other injury;
- (vi) children must not be shown driving or riding on agricultural machines (including tractor-drawn carts or implements).

Except that in advertisements designed specifically and not only to promote safety it may be acceptable to show children, for that purpose, in dangerous situations;

(b) Good Manners and Behavior

Children seen in advertisements should be presented in such a manner as to set a good example of behaviors and manners;

(c) Alcoholic Liquor and Tobacco Related Products

Children and adolescents will not be permitted to participate in the presentation of advertisements for alcoholic liquor or tobacco related products.

Appendix II: Enrollment Statistics, Hong Kong Education Department, 1995-96

95/96

Grade	MALE	FEMALE
P3	34588	32522
P4	38245	35715
P5	40640	47960
P6	39415	37374

Appendix III: List of Sampling Units

Hong Kong Islands:

1. Lingnan Primary School and Kindergarten*
2. Buddhist Chung Wah Kornhill Primary School (AM)*
3. Building Contractors' Association Primary School (PM)
4. Canossa School (Hong Kong) (PM)
5. Salesian English School (Primary Section)

Kowloon:

6. Island Road Government Primary School (PM)
7. Pak Tin Catholic Primary School (PM)
8. San Wui Commercial Society Kowloon School
9. Canton Road Government Primary School (PM)*
10. Diocesan Girls' Junior School
11. Gar Ming Primary School and Kindergarten
12. LST Yeung Chung Ming Primary School (PM)*

New Territories:

13. Tsuen Wan Lutheran School (AM)
14. Tuen Mun School
15. Yuen Long Po Kok Branch School (PM)*
16. Shung Tak School
17. Yuen Long Yau Tam Mei School*
18. HKWCA Wong Ming Him Memorial Primary School (PM)
19. HHC Shing Hang Fong Memorial Primary School (PM)
20. Buddhist Lim Kim Tian Memorial School (AM)

*Shools have joined this study.

Appendix IV: Sample Letter of Request

Principal
School Name
School Address

March 5, 1997

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: Seek Approval to Conduct Study

I am a postgraduate student in Department of Journalism and Communication of Chinese University of Hong Kong. Now, I am conducting a research studying how TV commercials affect the consumption behaviors of children. Form the whole list of the primary schools, I randomly select ten schools, and yours is one of them. I write to seek your consent of allowing me to do the questionnaires in your school. If I have your kind consent, I will select one class from each grade (three to six) for the study. It takes ten to fifteen minutes for the pupils to finish the questionnaires. The results from this study are valuable for us to know how the television advertising would affect the children's consumption behaviors. Your cooperation is much appreciated.

Should you have any queries about the study, please call me at XXXXXXXXX or page XXXXXXXXX A/C XXXX. I look forward to your early reply.

With all my best wishes.

Yours faithfully,

Pok Fook Sun

Appendix V: Sample Questionnaire (English Version)

Little brother/sister,

We are going to conduct a study about the relationship between TV ads and consumption behaviors of children in Hong Kong. We hope you can help us by giving us your information and opinions which would be kept strictly confidential. In the following questions, there are no right or wrong answers. Please read carefully the instructions before you give us the answers. Should you have any queries, please ask the people concerned. Thank you.

A. Personal Information

1. What is your sex ?

Male ☐

Female ☐

2. What is your age in your last birthday?

3. Which grade are you studying?

P3 ☐

P4 ☐

P5 ☐

P6 ☐

4. How much time do you watch TV in average everyday in this month?

_____ hours

5. How much pocket money your parents or family members give you each week in average in this month?

\$ _____

6. How much money do you spend each week in average in this month?

\$ _____

B. Motivation for TV Ads Viewing

Following are some reasons people watch TV advertising. For each reason, check whether each of the following happens very often, often, sometimes, or never.

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
1. To find out how good a product is.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. To find out what things to buy to impress others.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. To help me decide what things to buy.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. To find out where I can buy some things I want.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. To have something to talk about with others.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. To learn about the 'in' things to buy.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. I see people on TV ads who are examples of the way I wish I were.	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Because TV ads are entertaining.	_____	_____	_____	_____

C. Attitude Towards TV Ads

What do you think of the commercials on TV? Read each question carefully, then put a ✓ in the box for your answer.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Television commercials tell the truth.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Most TV commercials are in poor taste and very annoying.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Television commercials tell only the good things about a product - they don't tell you the bad things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. I like most television commercials.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Television commercials try to make people buy things they don't really need.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. You can always believe what the people in commercials say or do.	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. The products advertised the most on TV are always the best products to buy.	_____	_____	_____	_____

D. Information Seeking

Before you buy the following goods, who you would rely on most for information and advice. You can check more than one source.

	Friends	TV ads	Parents	Newspaper/Magazines
1. Candy	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. Stationery	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Sports	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Fast Food	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Toys	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Clothing	_____	_____	_____	_____

E. Product Evaluation

Before you buy the following products, how you could tell which one is best for you.
You can check more than one reason.

	One that is on sale	One that is advertised a lot	One that my friends like	One with a well-known brand name	One that my parents like
1. Candy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Stationery	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Sports	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Fast Food	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Toys	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Clothing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

F. Independent Purchase Role Structure.

Please put a ✓ in the appropriate space to indicate how you would buy the following goods.

	Alone	With Friends	With Parents	Ask someone in the family to buy
1. Candy	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Stationery	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Sports	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Fast Food	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Toys	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Clothing	_____	_____	_____	_____

G. Family Communication about Consumption

Check whether each of the following happens very often, often, sometimes, rarely, or never.

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
1. My parents tell me what things I should or should not buy.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. My parents want to know what I do with my money.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. I help my parents buy things for the family.	_____	_____	_____	_____

- | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 4. My parents complain when they don't like something I bought for myself. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 5. My parents ask me what I think about things they buy for themselves. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 6. My parents and I talk about things we see or hear advertised. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 7. I ask my parents for advice about buying things. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 8. My parents tell me why they buy some things for themselves. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 9. I go shopping with my parents. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 10. My parents and I talk about buying things. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 11. My parents tell me I should decide about things I should or shouldn't buy. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| 12. My parents tell me what they do with their money. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

H. Peer Communication about Consumption

Check whether each of the following happens very often, often, sometimes, rarely, or never.

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Never
1. I ask my friends for advice about buying things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. My friends and I talk about buying things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. My friends and I talk about things we see or hear advertised.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. My friends ask me for advice about buying things.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. My friends tell me what things I should or shouldn't buy.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. I go shopping with my friends.	_____	_____	_____	_____

Appendix VI: Sample Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

學生問卷

各位同學,

問卷編號: _____

現時我們進行一項有關電視廣告與兒童購物行為的研究,希望你可以提供你的意見及資料給我們。你所提供的資料,將會絕對保密。以下的問題並沒有對或錯,所以請放心作答。請細心閱讀每題指示,然後提供你的答案。如有任何問題,歡迎向我們提出。

甲. 個人資料

1. 性別 1. 男 ☐ 2. 女 ☐
2. 你現時的年齡是? _____
3. 你現時就讀的班級是: 1.小三 ☐ 2.小四 ☐ 3.小五 ☐ 4.小六 ☐
4. 過去一個月,你每日平均睇幾多小時電視? _____ 小時
5. 過去一個月,你每星期平均有幾多零用錢? _____ 元
6. 過去一個月,你每星期平均會使用幾多零用錢? _____ 元

乙. 收看電視廣告情況

下面的句子有關你對收看電視廣告的情況,請仔細閱讀,然後剔出最接近你意思的答案。(你只可✓一項)

1	2	3	4
經常	間中	很少	沒有

1. 電視廣告可以幫我搵出某種商品的好處。 _____
2. 電視廣告令我知道要買些甚麼才會令別人有深刻印象。 _____

	1 經常	2 間中	3 很少	4 沒有
3. 電視廣告幫我決定購買邊種商品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 電視廣告令我知道可以在邊度購買我需要的用品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 睇電視廣告可以有多些話題跟其他人傾計。	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 電視廣告令我知道邊種是最流行的商品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. 電視廣告內的人物是我心目中的榜樣。	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. 電視廣告好好睇，好有娛樂性。	_____	_____	_____	_____

丙. 對電視廣告的態度

下面的句子有關你對電視廣告的看法，請仔細閱讀，然後剔出最接近你意思的答案。(你只可✓一項)

	1 非常 同意	2 同意	3 不同意	4 非常 不同意
1. 電視廣告所講的都是事實。	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 大部份電視廣告品味極低而且令人討厭。	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 電視廣告只會講出商品的好處而不會講其壞處。	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 我喜歡大部份電視廣告。	_____	_____	_____	_____

	1 非常 同意	2 同意	3 不同意	4 非常 不同意
5. 電視廣告會令人購買不需要的商品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 電視廣告人物所講的說話值得信賴。	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. 經常在電視廣告出現的商品通常是最好的。	_____	_____	_____	_____

丁. 商品資料

當你要買以下貨品之前，你通常會向邊個詢問有關資料及意見。你可✓多過一項。

	朋友	電視廣告	父母	報紙/雜誌
1. 糖果	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 文具	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 運動用品	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 快餐店食物	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 玩具	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 衣服	_____	_____	_____	_____

戊. 如何選擇商品

當你要買以下貨品之前，你選擇某隻牌子的主要原因是：（你可✓多過一項。）

	減價	經常在廣告 中看見	我朋友喜歡	牌子出名	我父母喜歡
1. 糖果	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 文具	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 運動用品	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 快餐店食物	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 玩具	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 衣服	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

己. 購買商品習慣

你會如何購買以下的商品。請在適當的地方填上一✓。（你只可✓一項）

	1 獨自購買	2 與朋友一起	3 與父母一起	4 叫屋企人買
1. 糖果	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 文具	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 運動用品	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 快餐店食物	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 玩具	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 衣服	_____	_____	_____	_____

庚. 家庭方面

以下的句子是有關你和你的父母平時購物的習慣，請仔細閱讀，然後剔出最接近你意思的答案。(你只可✓一項)

	1 經常	2 間中	3 很少	4 沒有
1. 父母會告訴我應該買些甚麼東西。	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 父母希望知道我如何使用金錢。	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 我會幫父母選購物品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 當父母不喜歡我買給自己的東西時，他們會直接說出來。	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 父母會詢問我對他們所購物品的意見。	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 父母會同我討論電視廣告的內容。	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. 要買東西時，我會問問父母的意見。	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. 父母會告訴我他們買某些物品的原因。	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. 我會和父母一起出外購物。	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. 父母會和我一起討論買東西。	_____	_____	_____	_____

	1 經常	2 間中	3 很少	4 沒有
11. 父母會告訴我要自己決定應該買或者不買那些商品。	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. 父母會告訴我他們如何處理金錢。	_____	_____	_____	_____

申. 朋友方面

以下的句子是有關你和你的朋友平時購物的習慣，請仔細閱讀，然後剔出最接近你意思的答案。(你只可✓一項)

	1 經常	2 間中	3 很少	4 沒有
1. 要買東西時，我會問問朋友的意見。	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. 朋友會和我一起討論買東西。	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. 朋友會同我討論電視廣告的內容。	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. 要買東西時，朋友會問問我的意見。	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. 朋友會告訴我應該買些甚麼東西。	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. 我會和朋友一起出外購物。	_____	_____	_____	_____

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